

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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CONTENTS

PAGE

Committee on Public Information, by Prof. G. S. Ford	-	97
Evolution of Our Calendar, and a Perpetual One, by B. M. Jaquish	- - - - -	100
History Situation in Colleges and Universities, 1919-1920, by Prof. A. M. Schlesinger	- - - - -	103
The Project Problem Method in History, by Prof. M. E. Branom	- - - - -	107
Supplementary Papers Relating to the Conference on History Teaching, December 30, 1919	- - - - -	111
Department of Social Studies	- - - - -	116
Effective Citizenship in a Democracy, by L. C. Staples; Teaching Social Economics, by Ruth Wanger; In the Field of Social Studies		

Notes from the Historical Field, 121; Far Eastern History, 121; New Method of Approach, 121; Chicago Course of Study, 122; Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase, 123; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by L. F. Stock, 125; Articles on Teaching History, listed by W. L. Hall, 126; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 126.

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The Committee on Public Information

BY PROFESSOR GUY STANTON FORD, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA.

In a recent issue of this magazine there was a very sedate, a very objective, and very good article on propaganda committees during the Civil War. I feel sure others read it as I did with interest. It described the work of two private organizations, one in Massachusetts and one in New York that undertook to enlighten the nation by pamphlets and speeches as to the issues involved in the struggle for the nation's preservation and unity. It was really excellent history. I read it appreciatively, and in a sub-conscious way wondered if I should live to be old enough to read in some future issue an article equally objective on similar work during the Great War, in which quite likely there would be paragraphs on the Committee on Public Information. I mentally ran through the formula by which such an article would be blocked out. The writer would sketch the vaster extent and complexity of the issues involved, the varied groups in the greater nation (footnote here giving immigration, racial and language statistics) that must now be instructed about issues not domestic and not debated for forty years, how the multiplicity of agencies of war had now their parallel in the equally multiplex agencies for reaching public opinion so vital when modern war made the phrase a "nation in arms" a reality, how national organization and national support and participation in the business of morale building now went hand in hand with food control, transportation, the work of the governments up to and including the first week of April, 1917, etc., etc. I saw the inevitable footnote: "It is to be regretted that many of the private agencies left no available records, and that archives in Washington are so scattered and poorly housed and disordered that a complete picture of the work of the chief agency, the Committee on Public Information, is impossible. This is especially true of their work in foreign countries. The writer has been fortunate in hearing the reminiscences of several men who participated in this work, but has been unable to control their failures of memory due to advanced age. The collection of the committee's publications in the British Museum is incomplete, and needs to be supplemented by that in the library in the University of Sitka."

The future writer is perfectly welcome to this outline and footnote, for I am not going to use it. I can't even pretend to be the historian of the Committee on Public Information less than one year after its work closed, and after being actively engaged with it

throughout its career. This is disadvantage enough. And then do what you will it gradually dawns on your reader that you are discussing the "Creel Committee." What that was or who Mr. Creel was, or what he undertook he doesn't know, and from what he gathered from the newspapers he feels sure he doesn't want to know. I am therefore obliged to throw myself on such a reader's mercy, and ask him to forget for a moment his faith that everything in the newspapers is so, and everything they hint is much more so, and that the cream of the truth is really in the head lines. I shall have to trust also to his honor to keep it dark that I am talking about the "Creel Committee," and that twenty months in Washington has so inoculated me with officialism that I cannot bring myself to use anything but the official title of the Committee on Public Information, 10 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

If there be any reader who wants to really get at the true inwardness of the Committee on Public Information "through official channels" he should read the hearing before a sub-committee of the House Committee on Appropriations in June, 1918.¹ Five members of Congress, including the present speaker, the present Republican floor leader, a past speaker (Mr. Cannon), the chairman of the committee and a second Democratic member, Mr. Byrne of Colorado, who were passing on appropriations of several billions, gave three days to us and our request for two millions. They had read the newspapers, and they knew what we were. We surely were an administration partisan organization, but when practically all chiefs of divisions turned out to be Republicans, and the leader of the Four-Minute Men was a Hughes campaign worker, that line closed up sharply with only a lingering suspicion of one or two who had voted different tickets according to the platforms or candidates. We were censors for the newspapers. Did we not have as a chairman a person whom the newspapers had called "Censor Creel?" But we had no powers as a censor, and had only circulated requests framed by the war-making departments to the press and very mild ones they were, largely because Mr. Creel fought the first outline submitted and stood for opening up every avenue of information. The newspapers had been put on their honor and were observing these requests. Those who did not had to reckon ultimately with the

¹ The writer has given a somewhat longer account in the *Bulletin of the Minnesota Historical Society* for April, 1919.

Post Office Department and the Attorney General, not with the Committee on Public Information which had seen the proposed censorship die a deserved and unregretted death a year before. Finally, was there not the chairman who had written very Denveresque editorials in a Colorado newspaper seven or eight years before? True, they did sound a bit shrill, and Mr. Creel had evidently not crossed himself before he breathed the name of the Colorado Coal Company or the two old parties. How could a man be a patriot and think the Constitution might be amended, the courts more responsive and the parties more progressive? The helm went hard a port on another tack when Mr. Creel suggested that Mr. Roosevelt had been equally excited and vigorous under stress of political battles, and some memories around that table were keen enough so that further amplification of the parallel was unnecessary.

Finally having found out what we were not, which is quite an important point in considering the committee's work, they settled down to find out what we were, and they were interested and appreciative, but not more appreciative than we were of the opportunity to tell our story to some one, and it is only half-told there for the queries related only to the domestic work, and not at all to the work abroad.

The half that was told in the three days' inquiry and the half that was not told can only be summarized here.

President Wilson established the committee by executive order on April 14, 1917, eight days after the declaration that war existed. By making its membership consist formally of the Secretaries of State, War and Navy, with Mr. George Creel as civilian chairman, he joined the official war-making departments with the group of able journalists who stood for publicity and the theory that the way to avoid the blunders of the early English and French censorship was to fill the newspapers with accurate news, and remove the necessity of supervising them. The press waited to see what it meant. Mr. Creel had his conference with Washington correspondents as to his plans for getting to them all they could ask for that was not information useful to the enemy. Then the censorship amendment to the espionage act was introduced into Congress. The committee had to ride out that storm and never escaped from the inevitable misunderstanding. To the end, many a paper in a country which left the press in unexampled war-time freedom cherished the idea that it was censored when the only restriction was its own honorable compliance with the requests of the war-making departments. Some of them whose correspondents went abroad by Mr. Creel's aid and insistence were most bitter in their attacks on him and in their misrepresentation of the committee. But this was all in the day's work, and nobody could stop to combat intentional ignorance. The committee was now at more important tasks.

The work of the committee was organized under divisions—something like twenty divisions in all by the close of the war. No set plan was basic to the creation of a plan. It was a question only of carrying

out a new idea or performing some new service or attacking our manifold tasks from some new angle. Each division was under a director with large authority and yet with direct responsibility to the chairman. The Cabinet members were soon so definitely absorbed by the tasks of their departments that their relation to our work was largely nominal except as phases of our work touched the war work of their departments. President Wilson took a keen interest in the work of the committee, and as many matters it treated were intimately related to the development of war programs and national policy, he was generous with his time and advice in a way that made both beginnings and ultimate achievement more certain.

The first two divisions that got under way were the news division and the *Official Bulletin*. Through the news division a clearing house for official war news was established. It was hoped that we could thus serve the Washington correspondents and the officials who could no longer give time for successions of interviews. Representatives of this division were gradually placed in all war-making departments, commissions, boards, etc. They secured the "stories," which were mimeographed, as releases and put at the disposal of all correspondents. They could take or leave them. The committee did not wire or mail such items to any paper. Correspondents were not limited to these releases alone. They could follow the matter further through our representative, and ultimately to the war or navy officials who could give or withhold information. The committee's effort was constantly to get more news for the public and to open up every avenue of information. The news division which issued thousands of releases had a remarkable record for accuracy, only being in serious error once, and then because our representative was not then, as he was later, in a position to check the story furnished by the officials in charge of the board to which he was attached.

The *Official Bulletin* was President Wilson's own idea, and gave the government for the first time an official daily organ in which all orders and official proclamations were made available in complete form. Most other governments had long had such an official repository, and the United States was the outstanding power which had had no official repository for executive and departmental orders. It was not a newspaper and carried no editorials or "scoops." It was distributed to post offices, officials, foreign embassies and a selected list of libraries free, and many private firms and officials willingly paid the subscription price. Its files will make an important source for the future historian of America's war activities and policies. Unfortunately it was printed on cheap and inexpensive paper, and is fully as perishable as any penny daily.

The foreign division became ultimately the largest division, and the full story of its work is immensely interesting. The committee's representatives went into every important foreign land, either neutral or associated with us in the war. Their efforts to present America's cause and fight German propaganda in neu-

tral countries was backed by a flow of films, cables, pictures, pamphlets, press material, etc. In New York a cable news service and press bureau were built up far more extensive than any under private control. It did not duplicate the news association material, but supplemented it with material that enabled our representatives to make a quick come-back in friendly organs when the Germans had put some lie in papers they owned or controlled. The films were educational throughout—what America was in its normal life as a real democracy and then what it was doing in the way of war preparations. The chain of representatives thus linked up reached around the world from Archangel (at first in Petrograd and Moscow), to Stockholm, London, Paris, Berne, Rome, Madrid, Mexico City, Rio Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Valparaiso, and across the Pacific to Vladivostok, Harbin, Irkutsk and Tomsk. The Siberian group was supplemented by an educational expert who could serve in answering the large number of Russian inquiries as to America's schools and universities. What Dean Wm. Russell did in this field makes a whole story in itself. And that is only a fragment of the extensive and intelligent battle against misrepresentation and ignorance of America that was carried on under Prof. Charles E. Merriam in Rome, Messrs. Whitehouse in Berne, Marion in Madrid, Murray in Mexico City, and by Arthur Bullard and Edgar Sisson in Russia. It was a great game to play the truth against such odds as they met and to see it make its way, not for the moment or the war, but for the future in which it is now our responsibility to see that our country lives up to the unselfish and inspiring international policy it proclaimed in the heat of battle.

I could go thus from division to division. Some I may almost count as known to all, as, for example, the division of Four-Minute Men with its remarkable organization of speakers to put over war drives and patriotic education. The Speaking Division, under Mr. Bestor, President of Chautauqua, and later under Mr. Pettijohn, of Indiana, brought order into the conflicting speaking programs of great private patriotic societies, and organized and stimulated state war work conferences and speaking campaigns. The film division built and circulated such films as America's Answer, Under Four Flags, etc., and supplied educational films and weekly service, both at home and abroad. It was responsible for the great war exposition of America and the Allies shown in San Francisco and on the lake front in Chicago. The advertising and pictorial art divisions in different fields were media through which the government divisions commanded advertising space and the service of artists absolutely free. No one could pay men such as Gibson, Pennell and others for what they did for their government through the latter division. If the division had furnished no other drawing than the one used by the Red Cross, "The Greatest Mother of Them All," it would have justified itself. The syndicate division which supplied material on the war by talented writers to Saturday and Sunday specials, and the Women's War Work division were effective in their

fields, but were closed before the end of the war for want of funds. The work with the foreign-born groups helped the patriotic elements in those groups to make effective their loyal sentiments by working with the societies it helped them organize, such as the Friends of German Democracy, the Roman Legion, the Hungarian Loyalty Legion, etc.

Other organizations were largely indebted to Mr. Creel's efforts for their beginnings and for generous support—e.g., the American Alliance for Labor and Democracy and the League for American Unity.

Two other divisions must be mentioned, and then this incomplete survey is done. The Service Bureau which opened May 1, 1918, under Prof. McReynolds, of Dartmouth, became at once a useful clearing house for all who came to Washington to seek information, and had to locate the right man in a war-making organization. Here in the old down-town passenger office of the Pennsylvania railway was a complete catalogue of personnel, addresses and functions of every official and bureau or board making contracts or doing any form of war work with which business men and the general public sought control. Harassed Congressmen were at once relieved, and their still more confused constituents were for the first time promptly and accurately directed, and those who used the Bureau saved days of wasted time. Had we been able to get this bureau under way at the start we could have obviated any amount of complaint and confusion not only in Washington, but in the country at large, which frequently got its impressions from some returned citizen who had tramped for days from office to office seeking the official who could settle the inquiry or close the business he had in hand.

The division for which I was chiefly responsible, dealing with preparation and publication of pamphlets and other large educational projects, I have placed last—that I might be restrained by space limits. Sometime and somewhere you have all seen a "Red, White and Blue Book," or one of the pamphlets in the "War Information Series" or a Loyalty Leaflet. If you are a public school teacher, you know, I hope, something of the semi-monthly sent free to all teachers under the title, "National School Service." If you have made a war speech or taught war aims in camp or college, perhaps the "War Cyclopedia" is still in your library. These things are less the product of my division than they are of the unselfish service of scores of American scholars in war time. I can say very objectively that these men did a great service, and did it supremely well. It must be their comfort, as it was that of the committee, that the French, English and Italian organizations doing similar work gave the American governmental work the palm over that of any other country.

It was a great, and I can assure you, necessary work. From this division alone about 56,000,000 pieces were mailed, out of which 44,000,000 were pamphlets or issues of National School Service. It may be interesting to add that in all, including the Official Bulletin, Four-Minute Men Bulletins, foreign

translations, etc., about 125,000,000 separate pieces must have been mailed out by the committee.

At every point our hands were upheld and our efforts supported by those who saw what we were really driving at. Congressional Washington never quite caught up with the idea, and is still breathless when it tries to understand how it was all done.

Among the organizations that were helpful in every way, I know that Mr. Creel would agree with me in putting first the National Board for Historical Service. For every one interested in historical work it is gratifying to know that this organization did in its field a work for which a parallel can be found only in the work of the physical and biological sciences through a National Research Council.

As I look back over the work I am more amazed at the pitfalls we escaped, at the errors we didn't make than I am at the unimportant ones we did make.

So powerful an agency could easily have been misused or diverted from its great ideals. I really believe that no combination except such a one as we had of newspaper and university men could have done the work so fearlessly, with such large imagination and rapid execution, with such complete freedom from party or group interests. Nobody cared a rap for office, officials or anything but the facts and the task in hand. Congress makes it a subject of complaint that we scattered as soon as the work ended. They would have complained more bitterly if we had stayed on, but they would have understood it.

Here I must end, not an article or a history, but just a hasty and incomplete sketch of one of the most unique experiments a democracy ever made in the field of education, and one of the most effective efforts any government made during the war to put propaganda on a level with truth telling.

The Evolution of our Present Calendar and a Perpetual One Derived From It

BY B. M. JAQUISH, DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE, ERASMUS HALL HIGH SCHOOL, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

After Romulus founded Rome he formed a calendar having a year of only ten months, of 29 and 30 days alternating. These months were based on the lunar month which is about $29\frac{1}{2}$ days long. This year of ten lunar months did not correspond with the solar year, so enough days to make it correspond were intercalated. The months of this calendar were March, April, May, June, Quintilis, Sextilis, and words meaning 7th, 8th, 9th, and 10th, our September, October, November, and December.

Numa Pompilius, second King of Rome, added February and January; January at the beginning and February at the end.¹ In the year 452 B. C. the Decemvirs changed the order, putting January first and February second. This explains why December (e. g.) being the "tenth" month is our twelfth month. The months now had 29 and 30 days alternately, making 354 days in a year. Believing good fortune to be in odd numbers another day was added. Numa had a month of 22 or 23 days intercalated between February 23 and February 24 every second year, making an average of $366\frac{1}{4}$ days per year. This year lasted down to the time of Julius Caesar. The correction by intercalation of Numa's calendar to make it agree with the solar year was left to the Pontiffs who were very arbitrary in making corrections, so that when Caesar came in power the calendar was far from correct. It was customary to celebrate the festival of Flora, the Goddess of flowers, every spring in April, but in 47 B. C. the calendar anticipated the

seasons to such an extent that April came in the winter. The festival was celebrated in July of the calendar, but April of the seasons. The calendar was 67 days too fast. Caesar with the assistance of Sosigenes, an astronomer, added these 67 days and 23 that were known as an intercalary month or a total of 90 days between November and December. This made a year of 15 months or 445 days. These years of varying lengths due to the arbitrary powers of the Pontiffs, were known as years of confusion, and the last one and longest of them all is known as "the last year of confusion."

In Caesar's calendar the first, third, fifth, seventh, ninth, and eleventh months had 31 days each; the fourth, sixth, eighth, tenth, and twelfth, 30 days; and the second, 29 days, making a total of 365 days. It also provided that every fourth year should have 366 days, the extra day to be added to February, giving this month 30 days. This scheme lasted until 8 B. C. when Augustus Caesar had the Roman Senate name a month after him. Julius Caesar had Quintilis named after him, hence our July—Julius Caesar was born in Quintilis—so selection of this month was appropriate. Augustus Caesar was born in September, a 31-day month. If September had been selected, the alternate long and short months would have been preserved, but Augustus selected Sextilis, a short month. This was due to the fact that several important events in his life took place during this month. Because Julius Caesar's month had 31 days in it, Augustus Caesar wanted 31 days in his, so he took one from February, leaving it 28 days, and added it to August, making it a 31-day month. This made three long months in succession, July, August, and September, so he changed all of the months following August.

¹ Since Romulus and Numa Pompilius are legendary characters, the calendar attributed to them is also legendary, but there is other evidence that there was a ten-month year, and such reputable works as the Encyclopedia Britannica mention it. At any rate, it serves as a working basis.

This spoils the alternation of long and short months as planned by Julius Cæsar, and makes it necessary for us to learn the rhyme, "Thirty days has September," etc.

The Romans added the extra day in leap year to the month of February, but not at the end. The sixth day before the first of March was counted twice, making what we call leap year, a bissextile year.

Cæsar's plan of having a leap year every fourth year was not fully understood by the Pontiffs. They added the extra day every third year; so, after 36 years and during Augustus Cæsar's reign, there had been 12 leap years instead of 9. To remedy this, Augustus Cæsar omitted all leap years for the next 12 years.

Even this calendar of $365\frac{1}{4}$ days is not correct, for the year is not exactly $365\frac{1}{4}$ days long, and the error amounts to nearly one day in 128 years.

Our Christian calendar followed the Julian calendar, as revised by Augustus Cæsar. The founding of Rome is supposed to have taken place in 753 B. C. Still Roman dates were in use long after what is now known as the Christian era. The Julian calendar was in general use throughout Europe until 1582, and is still in use in Russia and some of the Balkan States. The early Christians started a new or Christian era based upon the *death* of Christ, but this was changed in the year of Rome 1286 (A. D. 533) when Dionysius Exiguus, a Roman monk, fixed the beginning of the Christian era at the *birth* of Christ, which he supposed took place in the year of Rome 754. Other early Christians as well as modern Biblical scholars place this date at 750. However, the Dionysian era is the one now used. This explains why the birth of Christ is given as 4 B. C.

The beginning of the year as well as the beginning of the era has been subject to change. In England down to 1066 it was March 25; 1066 to 1115, January 1st; 1115-1751, March 25; and finally by the calendar amendment of October, 1752, the beginning of the year was established as January 1.

The solar year is nearly eleven minutes short of $365\frac{1}{4}$ days, making one leap year in four, too many by about 3 in 400 years. To correct this error, Pope Gregory XIII in 1582, with the assistance of the astronomer Clavius, still further revised the calendar, and it is now known as the Gregorian calendar. He provided for the dropping of ten days and by a brief ordered the day following October 4 to be October 15. He also provided that only even centuries divisible by 400 should be leap years. The year is so nearly correct now that there will be an error of only one day in about 3300 years. In France, the same year, December 10 became December 20. Catholic countries in general adopted the Gregorian calendar at once; Protestant countries later. England in 1752, by the Calendar Amendment Act, made the day following September 2, September 14. In the Protestant States of Germany it was not wholly

adopted until 1774. December 25 in the United States is December 12 in Russia.²

This account of the development of the calendar refers to only one calendar, but 2000 years ago each country had its own calendar based upon its own history. It began with its own independence, the accession of some monarch, a decisive battle or some other important event. The Mohammedan and the Jewish calendars have not been mentioned, but a student of Oriental history must know their relation to our calendar.

With these facts in mind, a method for determining the day of the week any day of the month falls on becomes an easy matter. If there were 364 days in every year, the same day of the month would always fall on the same day of the week; e.g., if January 1 in the year 1 fell on Friday, it would fall on Friday every other year. But as there are 365 days (not including leap years), the day of the week of any particular day of the month comes one day later each year; and in 1200 A. D. it will be 1200 days later than in the year 1. However, there are leap years, so the day of the week will come 1200 days plus 1200 divided by 4 days later. And for any other date the first day will move ahead as many days as the date is later than January 1. With every advance of 7 days of the week any day of the month again falls on the same day of the week as at the beginning; so, dividing the total number of days a day of the week has advanced by 7, we get a whole number of cycles, with a remainder which indicates the day of the week. A remainder of 1 means Friday; 2, Saturday; 3, Sunday; 4, Monday; 5, Tuesday; 6, Wednesday; 0, Thursday. Of course this applies in the English calendar only until 1752. After that date, in the eighteenth century, by dividing by 4, eleven too many leap years (the eleven days dropped by the Calendar Amendment Act) are obtained, hence, eleven days must be subtracted; in the nineteenth century, twelve days, and in the twentieth, thirteen days. If the date is later than February 28 and falls on a leap year, by dividing the year by 4 the extra day is counted, and February must be counted as having only 28 days. If the date is before February 28, the division by 4 gives one day too many, and must be subtracted from the total. A few examples will illustrate this method.

On Friday, October 12, 1492, Columbus discovered America.

1492

373 equals 1492 divided by 4

285

7)2150

307 minus 1 equals Friday

² During a conversation with a member of the Russian Embassy in New York City this fall, I asked him if he thought Russia would adopt the Gregorian Calendar at the close of the present war. He replied that he thought it would eventually be adopted, but that the change would be gradual, possibly by omitting thirteen leap years.

1492 is a leap year, and the number 373 includes February 29.

January	31
February	28
March	31
April	30
May	31
June	30
July	31
August	31
September	30
October	12
	<hr/>
	285

This method assumes that in 533 A. D. when Dionysius established the year of Rome 754 (date of the birth of Christ) as the beginning of the Christian era, the date he accepted made January 1, 1 A. D., come on Friday. Because of one day more than 52 weeks in a year, this day has moved ahead in 1492 years 1492 days, plus 373 days due to 373 leap years, and October 12 has moved ahead 285 more days, or a total of 2150 days. But as every 7 days brings it back to Friday, dividing by 7 gives 307 cycles of 7 days each, with a remainder of 1, showing that October 12, 1492, is the first day of the 308th cycle, or Friday. This method applies to any English date before September 3, 1752. For any later date in the eighteenth century 11 days must be subtracted from the total; in the nineteenth century, 12 days; and in the twentieth century, 13 days.

December 14, 1799, Saturday. Date on which Washington died.

1799
449 minus 3
348 equals number of days from January 1 to December 14.
<hr/>
2596

11 equals 11 days dropped in 1752.

7)2585

369 — 2 equals Saturday.

January 21, 1892. Thursday.

1892
473 minus 0
21
<hr/>
2386

12

2374

1

7)2373

339 — 0 equals Thursday.

473 includes February 29, 1892. As January 21 comes before February 29, this extra day should not be counted. In this case I have made an extra sub-

traction before dividing by 7. Ordinarily, the correction number 11, 12, 13, would be increased by 1.

12 equals the 11 days dropped in 1752, and one day included in 473. By dividing 1892 by 4, 1800 is counted a leap year.

January 30, 1910.

1910
477 — 2
30
<hr/>
2417

2417

13

7)2404

344 — 3 equals Sunday.

The following are a few well-known dates in English, French, and American history and events of the Crusades, that may be used in verifying this method:

Saturday, October 14, 1066.
Monday, February 14, 1099.
Saturday, July 4, 1187.
Monday, May 6, 1191.
Wednesday, June 15, 1215.
Friday, May 18, 1291.
Sunday, June 8, 1376.
Monday, September 19, 1356.
Friday, April 29, 1429.
Tuesday, October 12, 1428.
Sunday, March 1, 1562.
Sunday, August 24, 1572.
Wednesday, February 25, 1601.
Tuesday, January 30, 1649.
Sunday, March 8, 1702.
Thursday, July 4, 1776.
Friday, April 12, 1861.
Monday, September 19, 1881.
Friday, September 6, 1901.
Thursday, February 3, 1910.

In accordance with an act of the Thirty-eighth General Assembly of Iowa, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction has appointed a committee of educators to prepare an outline for the study of American citizenship in the first eight grades, and for American history, civics, economics and social problems in the secondary schools of Iowa. Prof. Harry Grant Plum, of the University of Iowa, has been appointed chairman of the committee, and his associates are: Prof. J. W. Gannaway, Department of Political Science of Grinnell College; Prof. Charles H. Meyerholz, of the Iowa State Teachers' College; Prof. L. B. Schmidt, of the History Department of State College; George S. Dick, Inspector of Consolidated Schools, Des Moines; W. H. Powell, editor *Ottumwa Courier*; Mrs. A. H. Hoffman, County Superintendent, Des Moines; Prof. Elma E. Lymer, Morningside College; Superintendent J. J. McConnell, of Cedar Rapids; Superintendent Roy Latham, of Ida Grove; E. H. Sands, of the Housing Commission, Des Moines, and Tracey Garrett, editor *Burlington Hawk-eye*.

The History Situation in Colleges and Universities, 1919-20

BY PROFESSOR ARTHUR M. SCHLESINGER, STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA.

Due to influences and circumstances arising out of war conditions the history curriculum in American colleges and universities seems to be in a fluent condition during the current academic year. Many departments of history are actively engaged in revising their programs of courses, and not in recent years has the spirit of innovation and experiment been so evident. College departments are examining their offerings with new eyes; and the older tendency to offer elementary courses with a view to a strictly chronological or sequential plan seems, temporarily at least, to have yielded to a purpose to meet the needs of a maximum number of students with subject-matter that should serve to convert them into intelligent citizens of the republic and of the world.

That this development, if allowed to go too far, may yield serious disadvantages goes without saying. It is, in part, the answer of history departments to the reproach implicit in the programs for Americanization, devised by laymen, which are sweeping over the country. What the colleges have done in the past in the name of "history for history's sake," they are now willing to sacrifice for a more generous emphasis upon modern times treated from a broadly social point of view. In directing attention to the value of recent history as a field for elementary study, the courses in War Issues, offered to students in the S. A. T. C. during the war, have played an important part.

The vast hordes of students who entered college work last fall have also necessitated adjustments and alterations in courses and methods of instruction, which may be followed by farther-reaching changes in subsequent years. The increase in history registrations has been greater in many institutions than the increase in college enrollment, which would argue that undergraduate interest in history has been stimulated by recent world developments and by the participation of many of the students in the Great War. If this explanation is correct, the effects of world events on the student mind cannot be traced more minutely, for there has been no decided drift on the part of students into European history as compared with the American field, or the reverse. Where there has been a marked contrast in relative growth, a local reason may generally be found to explain it, such as a contraction or expansion of offerings in the field concerned or the attraction of superior teachers irrespective of subject.

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION.

The present investigation was conducted by means of a questionnaire sent in November, 1919, to the liberal arts departments of the leading universities of the United States, and to a limited number of the smaller colleges. The conclusions set forth in this article are based on the assumption that the replies sent by twenty-one colleges and universities are typical of the situation in other liberal arts colleges of the coun-

try.¹ The promptness with which the replies were sent and the character of the comments showed that the problems presented by the questionnaire were already being carefully studied and actively discussed in many departments of history.

This widespread interest suggests the utility of having some clearing-house of information, to which history departments might turn when they desired to obtain a broader view of a curricular or instructional problem than the local situation afforded. Occasional conferences, such as the one on the elementary history course held at Cincinnati in 1916 as a part of the program of the American Historical Association, are useful but they fail to meet the need. Questionnaires sent out at annual or biennial intervals would be helpful, but the questionnaire method of investigation is subject to distinct limitations. It is hoped that some systematic plan may be devised whereby college departments of history may profit by each other's experiences and receive the benefit of each other's counsel.

NOVEL FRESHMAN OFFERINGS.

The current academic year has been productive of several bold innovations in elementary history courses. At Columbia a course is being offered in contemporary civilization, which is prerequisite to all other courses in history, economics, politics, sociology and philosophy. This course is given five times a week; and the field covered may be indicated by the main subdivisions, the first dealing with the world of nature and human nature, the second with the transition from medieval civilization to modern times, the third with the nineteenth century background of present-day problems, and the fourth with a consideration of some of the more insistent contemporary social and political problems. History instructors have entire charge of about one-third of the sections of this course, the others being conducted by instructors of the departments of economics, politics and philosophy.

At the University of Texas one of the optional freshman courses bears the familiar label of "War Issues," and undertakes to present the background and causes of the World War with a discussion of the peace settlement and problems of reconstruction. The War Issues course appears at Williams College in a different guise as a freshman course devoted to com-

¹ A copy of the questionnaire was published in the HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for December, 1919, pp. 512-513. Replies were received from the University of California, University of Chicago, Columbia University, Cornell University, Emory and Henry College, Harvard University, University of Illinois, State University of Iowa, University of Kansas, Marietta College, University of Michigan, University of Minnesota, New York University, Ohio State University, University of Pittsburgh, Leland Stanford, Jr., University, University of Texas, Wabash College, Williams College, University of Wisconsin and Yale University.

parative government in the first semester, and to economic history in the second; and plans are being formulated at the University of Missouri, University of West Virginia and elsewhere for offering general freshman courses in citizenship, which are undoubtedly an outgrowth of the War Issues idea.

One of the unique offerings in elementary history is the course which is being conducted by Prof. H. E. Bolton, of the University of California, in the history of the Americas. This course is given three times a week to twelve hundred and fifty students. The first semester's work completes the period to 1776, and consists of a general sketch of the European background of American history, the occupation of the American continents, the transmission of European civilization (Spanish, Portuguese, Swedish, Dutch, French, Russian and English), colonial expansion, and international rivalries. The second semester deals with the winning of the independence of the Americas (English, Spanish and Portuguese), and the development of the American republics and of the Dominion of Canada, with their interrelations and relations with the outside world.

All these experiments will be watched with great interest by history departments which have not ventured so far from the beaten paths.

STANDARD ELEMENTARY COURSES.

In general the colleges and universities of the country vary somewhat as to the number of history courses which are open to freshman election, six of the twenty-one institutions confining the choice to a single course and one university permitting an option of six possible fields.² The general practice is to open two or three courses to first-year students. As a rule, United States history is not offered as a subject open to freshmen, although it is possible that there will be a change in this respect in the next few years, because of the pressure which is being exerted upon college administrations to encourage students to become acquainted with their own country's history. Of the twenty-one institutions, United States history is offered as an alternative freshman course at Iowa, Ohio State University, Pittsburgh, Stanford and Yale, at Kansas in the case of students who have not presented high school American history for college entrance credit, and at California as an integral part of the general course in the history of the Americas. English history is offered as one of the courses open to first-year students at Cornell, Illinois, Kansas (in the form of a single semester course), Michigan, Minnesota, Stanford, Texas and Wisconsin, and as the sole freshman course at Marietta.

It is the almost universal practice to open courses in one or more fields of continental European history to freshman election, the single exception being Marietta. In sixteen of the twenty institutions, these

offerings include courses that extend down to the present time. Indeed, it may be said that current practice has established the course in medieval and modern history as the standard elementary course in continental European history.³ Some institutions have gone further and make their elementary course in this field a course in modern history. This is done at California, Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota and Wabash. At California and Iowa, first-year students find no other course in English or European history open to their election. Ordinarily such courses begin about 1500, but Michigan and Minnesota have preferred to take 1648 as their starting-point.

The four institutions that do not offer to freshmen courses in continental European history that include the modern period are Cornell, Kansas, Williams and Wisconsin. Cornell offers ancient history, Kansas and Williams medieval history, and Wisconsin general courses in both fields. It should be added that ancient history retains its time-honored place as an elective freshman course in only four of the institutions replying to the questionnaire: Cornell, Michigan, Wisconsin and Wabash.

The elementary history course irrespective of its field is ordinarily presented in three class hours a week for the academic year. Conspicuous among the exceptions are Iowa and Michigan where four periods a week are provided, and Chicago, Columbia and Stanford where five periods are specified.

CORRELATION WITH HIGH SCHOOL HISTORY.

Apparently no institution has worked out a satisfactory plan for the co-ordination of college history with high school courses in history, and ordinarily no formal allowance is made for pre-college instruction in history. As a matter of administrative adjustment, however, a few departments waive certain requirements in the case of students who have had an unusually large amount of high school work in history. At Kansas there is a standing rule that students who have received entrance credit for American history may not take for college credit the general under-class course in this field. The question of the relationship of high school history and college history is being carefully studied at Chicago, Michigan and elsewhere, and may result in the adoption of some formal scheme of correlation.

REQUIREMENT FOR DEGREE.

There are at present few institutions in which work in history is an absolute requirement for the A.B. degree. However, Harvard and New York University require at least one history course, and the undergraduates of Columbia College are required to take the course in contemporary civilization. At California, Illinois, Williams and other places, history is prescribed in certain curricula leading to the A.B. de-

² The six institutions are Chicago, Columbia, Emory and Henry, Harvard, Marietta and Williams. Stanford offers elementary instruction in medieval and modern history, English history, American history, Far Eastern history, Japanese history, and Hispanic American history.

³ In this form it is offered at Chicago, Emory and Henry, Harvard, New York University, Ohio State, Pittsburgh, Yale, Stanford and Texas. In all these institutions, except the last two, no alternative course in continental or English history is open to first-year students.

gree. Perhaps the most common practice is to list the elementary history courses in the catalogue as among a group of kindred subjects, of which the student must complete one to qualify for graduation. As the other subjects in the group are usually the beginning courses in economics and politics, the proportion of students who are shunted into history by this arrangement depends largely on whether the alternative subjects are open to freshman election. A summary of the replies to the questionnaire shows that it is possible for students to complete their college education in most institutions without taking a course in history, and to obtain the degree at Iowa, Kansas and a few other places without instruction in any of the social sciences.

RELATION TO OTHER SOCIAL SCIENCES.

The general tendency of colleges and universities is to restrict freshman offerings in social science subjects to history. This is the practice at Cornell, Emory and Henry, Marietta, Michigan, Minnesota, New York University, Texas, Wisconsin and Yale. Five institutions permit first-year students to elect courses in economics, politics and history; California, Chicago, Iowa, Pittsburgh and Williams. Harvard freshmen are permitted to take politics but not economics; and at Illinois, Kansas, Ohio State University and Stanford, freshman courses are offered in economics but not in politics. Where a freshman course in economics is provided, it is generally a course in economic history or economic resources. The course in politics is usually a course in American government or comparative governments.

RELATION OF ELEMENTARY TO ADVANCED COURSES.

The unusual attention, which departments of history have been compelled to devote to elementary courses this year because of the enlarged freshman registration, has been prejudicial to the interests of advanced undergraduate classes and graduate courses in many institutions. The need of additional freshman instruction and the lack of funds have caused the abandonment of advanced courses, or else there has been a tendency to increase teaching schedules to the point where the instructor has little energy left for his advanced classes or for the prosecution of his own researches. It is only fair to add that the depletion of the great graduate schools by the demands of the war has created a temporary dearth of instructors, and that at least one department failed to increase its teaching staff because of its belief that acceptable candidates for a \$1,500 instructorship were not available.

It is probable that in pre-war days there was a normal ratio between the number of registrations in the freshman elementary courses and those in the advanced courses, in groups of institutions where substantially similar conditions prevailed. So far as I am informed, no effort has ever been made to ascertain this ratio, and the question in the present questionnaire was too imperfectly worded to elicit replies upon which generalizations may safely be based. Certain tentative conclusions, however, may be

stated. Due to the swollen freshman enrollment, the number of students in the elementary freshman courses this year is larger in proportion to the advanced registrations than usual. The number of advanced registrations in American history courses is normally smaller in proportion to the elementary course than is the case in the European field, due probably to the fact that there are usually a greater number of European courses open to election by upper-class men without prerequisite, and to the further fact that American history is generally a sophomore course. Finally, it appears from the data collected that the pre-war ratio between the number of students in the elementary freshman courses, and the number of registrations in advanced work was two to one in the majority of institutions. There are honorable exceptions, such as Harvard and Williams where the advanced registration exceeded the number of students in the freshman courses.

QUESTION OF REDUCED CREDIT.

About one-half of the departments have devised regulations for encouraging students to elect the elementary history course prior to their senior year. Seniors and juniors receive reduced credit for taking history courses open to freshmen at Chicago, Michigan and Harvard; seniors alone are so penalized at Iowa, Ohio State University and Texas. The elementary history course is not open to juniors and seniors at New York University. Juniors and seniors at Wabash must secure a grade of "B" or better in order to obtain credit; and the practice at Wisconsin is to reduce the credit of those upper-class men who have more than one freshman course on their schedules. Eight other departments permit upper-class men to elect freshman courses in history without discrimination.⁴

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

One of the perennial questions confronting history department has appeared in aggravated form this year due to the great influx of students. This concerns the method of instruction in the large elementary courses. Should these courses be conducted as large lecture sections which are divided up into small quiz sections under quiz-masters one or more times a week, or should they be managed in discussion sections over which each instructor has full class-room control? Both plans have been employed in the colleges and universities of the country for many years; and the merits and disadvantages of each are too well known for further elucidation here. Judging from the present inquiry, the chief reason for the adoption of the former plan in most institutions where it is in use has been budgetary economy; and outside of Harvard and a few other universities, a consensus of opinion of history teachers would undoubtedly disclose a strong endorsement of the system of small independent discussion sections as producing the better teaching results. Columbia, Chicago and Williams

⁴ California, Emory and Henry, Kansas, Marietta, Pittsburgh, Stanford, Williams and Yale.

are instances of institutions which abandoned the lecture-quiz system after trial and adopted the plan of small discussion sections notwithstanding its higher cost. On the other hand, Minnesota gave up the latter system in favor of the lecture-quiz plan. During a recent discussion of the merits of the two plans at the University of Iowa, a poll of the students in the social science departments was taken on the question. Many of them had had personal experience with the lecture-quiz system in other departments and in other colleges, but the vote showed a preference of more than five to one in favor of the plan whereby students have constant contact with their instructor and may participate in discussion of the subject-matter.

During the current academic year ten universities are employing the method by which the elementary courses are taught in discussion sections over which each instructor has full class-room control: Chicago, Columbia, Emory and Henry, Iowa, Marietta, New York University, Ohio State University, Wabash, Williams and Yale. In eight other institutions the students are assembled in large sections for lectures and divided into smaller classes for quiz purposes: California, Cornell, Harvard, Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, Stanford and Wisconsin. Both plans are employed at Kansas, Pittsburgh and Texas.

Most departments making use of the former plan agree that the discussion section should consist of about 25 students, Chicago being the only one to fix the number as high as 35. Notwithstanding the congested conditions Columbia has been able to maintain her sections this year at about thirty, New York University at twenty-eight, and Yale at twenty-four. Of the state universities, Ohio State is by far the worst offender with sections varying from 50 to 60.

Under the lecture-quiz system the size of the lecture sections ordinarily depends upon the seating capacity of the rooms available. Of the institutions replying to the questionnaire, the size ranges from 100 to 1,000. The quiz sections vary from 20 to 26 at Harvard, Kansas, Texas and Wisconsin; elsewhere they are larger, averaging 40 at Pittsburgh. No uniform practice prevails in the type of quiz-master employed, men of all ranks from full professor to graduate assistant being engaged in this type of instruction. Notwithstanding the best of intentions it is usually true that departments are forced by circumstances to rely upon graduate assistants for the bulk of the quizzing. At Kansas and Pittsburgh, where, it will be recalled, both systems are in use, the schedules are so arranged that the lecturers are able to do their own quizzing. Likewise there is no uniformity among institutions as to the division of class periods for lecture and for quiz purposes. Ordinarily the Harvard plan of two lecture hours and one quiz hour is followed.

THE TEACHING LOAD.

One of the most vital problems of history departments concerns the teaching load of the members of the staff. The results of the present inquiry show that most departments make a distinction in this re-

gard between men who handle mainly the elementary classes and those whose chief work is with advanced students. In almost every instance the former group is required to carry the heavier schedule, the exact number of hours depending upon whether assistance is provided for paper work and upon the amount of repetition involved in the class-room instruction. Unfortunately the questionnaire was not so worded as to make clear the part that these factors played in determining the number of class hours. For this reason it is well to remember that a bare statement of the teaching hours without reference to possible modifying factors may be misleading. Keeping this in mind, it appears that this class of teachers are required to carry 12 or 13 hours a week at Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Texas and Wabash, and 14 or 15 hours at Iowa, New York University, Ohio State University and Pittsburgh. At Chicago, ten hours is the normal schedule, and at Illinois and Williams, from ten to twelve hours; but in all three cases the departments stated that the instructors take care of the paper work. The instructors in charge of elementary courses at Yale teach nine hours a week.

The results of the questionnaire were more satisfying in regard to teachers whose time is mainly employed in advanced instruction. As a matter of practice the normal teaching load appears to be a schedule of ten or eleven hours; but most departments expressed themselves in favor of a schedule of from six to eight hours as being conducive to the most effective teaching and to the stimulation of research. Let it be said that this ideal has been carried into practice by such universities as California, Chicago, Columbia and Michigan, and is approximated by Harvard, Illinois, Minnesota and Wisconsin. Comparatively few universities have as yet adopted a plan of reducing the teaching of professors who are engaged upon a notable piece of research; but it seems probable that the number of such institutions will increase greatly in the next few years.

The Royal Library of Belgium is endeavoring to make a collection of books, pamphlets, periodicals, newspapers, cartoons, etc., relating to the war, and it is especially desirous of gathering as much American material as possible. In as much as the library was unable during the German occupation to make any such collections, it is hoped that Americans who have material that may be of interest will be willing to offer it for permanent preservation in Brussels. Such material should be sent to the Hon. Louis de Sadeleer, Minister of State of Belgium, in care of the Belgian Consulate, 25 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y.

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The Project Problem Method in History

BY MENDEL E. BRANOM, HARRIS TEACHERS' COLLEGE, ST. LOUIS, MO.

THE VIEWPOINT OF THE PROJECT METHOD.

The project method is not a panacea for all educational ills, but its intelligent use will go far toward bringing about the ideal school system. The all-absorbing problem of the teacher is to select, organize and relate materials in such a way that the child develops desirably, efficiently, and happily. The project method involves the organization of school work into units of activity that not only are socially desirable, but that are also adapted to the child. Furthermore, the child must discover in the situation a problem or a viewpoint, the interpretation or unfolding of which appeals to him as having a personal value, which makes him eager to put forth the requisite energy. The project method, effectively used, takes account of both social and individual needs, and the two viewpoints are blended in the situation that confronts the child.¹

CLASSES OF HISTORY PROJECTS.

At least three classes of projects may be recognized in the teaching of history, (a) the information-project, (b) the enjoyment-project, and (c) the problem-project.

(a) The information-project involves the studying of history for the purpose of securing information. Discussions, lectures and printed articles may arouse in a listener or a reader a desire to ascertain exact facts with respect to a certain incident. Some people read history books in order that they may secure information that may be valuable in the solution of problems unexpectedly thrust upon them, but their reading is not undertaken with the explicit purpose of solving any particular problem.

(b) The enjoyment-project involves the reading of history, or the listening to historical accounts simply because of the pleasure that is derived therefrom. A person may be deeply absorbed in some interesting presentation of the European conflict, incidentally securing information, but fundamentally securing enjoyment out of the situation. He may have in mind no particular problem, no special information that he would like to secure, but he takes the narrative as it comes, vividly living over in imagination the experiences of others, or visualizing certain events, primarily for sheer enjoyment.

(c) The problem-project involves the securing of information in history in order that a mental query may be satisfied. How difficult a mental query needs to be before it properly can be called a project-problem need not be given serious consideration from the practical standpoint. In music the question may just as appropriately be raised, as to when a child is really

securing music from the piano. There are all gradations from the striking of a note to the playing of the most complicated selection. No music teacher wants her pupil to engage in the striking of a single note if he can master combinations, and as rapidly as the pupil is able he is initiated into the mysteries of more and more complex selections. A similar analogy holds true with respect to problem-projects. It is possible to ask the child questions that can be answered by a simple mental response. To the extent that questions and simple answers are involved the problem-project is of the most elementary nature. If we desire to develop a human being as rapidly as possible, we will confront him with problem-projects of increasing complexity, just as quickly as his unfolding nature will permit. To encourage a pupil to confine himself to the simpler problems when he is capable of wrestling with problems of considerable difficulty, involving a large number of facts and much reflective thinking, unnecessarily retards his progress.

TYPES OF HISTORY PROBLEMS.

There are two types of problems that are easily recognized in the teaching of history, (a) the effect-to-cause problem, and (b) the cause-to-effect problem. An event is studied, and an effort is made to explain how the event came to be, or an event is studied and an effort is made to discover the effects of this occurrence on subsequent and attendant events. The same situation may give rise to a backward problem, or how the event came to be, and a forward problem, or the effect that the event had on subsequent events.

ILLUSTRATION OF THE EFFECT-TO-CAUSE PROBLEM.

In a unit of work recently undertaken, the teacher entered into a discussion with the children of one of our national holidays, the Fourth of July. She attempted to arouse a general interest in this holiday by asking such questions as the following: How many of you have celebrated the Fourth of July? How did you celebrate it? Did other people also observe the day? Why has the day been set aside as a day of general rejoicing and as a day of special consecration to our country? In connection with the preceding questions it was found that practically all of the children had observed the day, and had looked forward to the Fourth of July for the purpose of having a good time, in such ways as shooting firecrackers, eating goodies, and watching the fireworks. In a more or less hazy way they knew that there was some relation to the government. They knew that patriotic speeches were made and that the soldiers paraded. The discussion, appealing to the experiences and interests of the children, aroused in them a desire to know more about Independence Day.

Several descriptions of the convention in Independ-

¹ Branom, M. E., "The Project Method in Education," Gorham Press, Boston, 1919.

ence Hall were read and the children informally dramatized the great event. The children agreed on the characters they would represent. The resolution of Richard Henry Lee, "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states," etc., was introduced, discussed and temporarily tabled. A committee was appointed to draft a declaration of independence, if this seemed desirable. The declaration was returned, read, discussed, amended, and adopted. The Liberty Bell pealed forth the glad tidings and heralds proclaimed far and wide the adoption of the Declaration of Independence. The heralds met children representing loyalists. The loyalists indignantly shook their heads and stated that such proceedings were treasonable. It was their judgment that the leaders soon would suffer the death penalty. The heralds met children representing patriots. The patriots rejoiced and said that the mother country had interfered too freely in the affairs of the colonies. In the dramatization was brought out clearly the division of opinion concerning the course that was taken.

Out of this introductory material arose the problem, Why did the colonists differ as to the desirability of adopting the Declaration of Independence? The various factors having a bearing on this problem, as the attitude of George III, the Stamp Act, the Townshend Acts, the Boston Massacre, and the repressive measures, were analyzed and an attempt made to understand the British viewpoint, as well as the viewpoint of the patriots. The conclusion was reached that the difference in opinion was largely due to varying economic interests and ideals. In order that each child might express his own judgment, individual summaries were required.

Out of the foregoing discussion naturally arose the problem, If you had lived in 1776 would you have been a patriot or a loyalist? The solution of this problem involved the use of material that had been analyzed in the solution of the preceding problem. It therefore tested the ability of the pupils to use the materials in a new situation, indicated the ideals of the pupils, and at the same time afforded an opportunity to review the ground covered on the basis of a real need.

ILLUSTRATION OF THE CAUSE-TO-EFFECT PROBLEM.

In history an effect which results from a cause may in turn become the cause of a subsequent event. Out of the situation created through the dramatization of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence was raised the question, Was the mere statement of the Congress that the colonies were independent sufficient? This line of thought led to the problem, How was the Declaration of Independence made good? The solution of this problem involved a consideration of (a) the military campaigns, (b) the assistance of France, (c) the financial needs, (d) the securing of supplies, (e) the disposition of traitors, (f) the co-operation of colonies, (g) the qualities of the leaders, and (h) the Treaty of Paris. In conclusion, the interpretation was adequately summarized.

The supplementary question was raised, Was it at

times uncertain whether the colonists could make good their Declaration of Independence? This line of thought led to the interpretative problem, Why was it at times doubtful whether the colonists would succeed? This problem had the same advantages as those indicated for the supplementary problem in the preceding illustration.

AN IDEAL USE OF THE PROBLEM-PROJECT.

In the preceding illustrations of problem solving, it has been shown that there are two important types of problems that may be used in history. Out of the situation involved in the adoption of the Declaration of Independence arose the problem with a backward perspective or an effect-to-cause problem, Why did the colonists differ as to the desirability of adopting the Declaration of Independence? Out of the same situation arose a problem with a forward perspective, or a cause-to-effect problem, How was the Declaration of Independence made good? Each problem brought together in meaningful relation numerous facts of American history. The details involved in the solution of each problem were involved in the solution of new but closely related problems. The problems were related to the child's experiences and interests so that he could see real values in their interpretation. He was willing to put forth the requisite energy for their solution. When the pupil is confronted with a problematic situation that is socially desirable, if he believes that the solution of the problem is of value and enters into the interpretation of the situation with energy and boundless enthusiasm, the school has practically realized an ideal use of the problem-project.

EVOLUTION OF ACADEMIC HISTORY IN RELATION TO TEACHING.

It is pleasing to find that the textbooks of history have undergone an evolution in harmony with the development of project work. (a) Accepting the general definition that history is a chronological account of everything that ever has happened, writers of textbooks have attempted to select the more important events, arranging them in time sequence. The events frequently have been classified by administrations. The criteria for the selection of important topics have magnified the relative importance of the event at the time of its occurrence, and have placed insufficient emphasis on the importance of the event in relation to modern day problems.

(b) The consideration of prominent events in chronological order gave the children many unrelated facts, which placed a premium on memory and discounted the value of reflective thinking. Events, however, have not just happened. Each event is a link in a chain of causes and effects. Increasing emphasis was placed on the interpretation of an event as to (1) the causes that brought it about, and (2) the effects that it had on contemporary and subsequent events. Information was supplemented with interpretation. With the reorganization of history from the interpretative standpoint, memory work was necessary, but largely in relation to reflective thinking.

(c) A further development of the causal idea involved the grouping of facts into a few large units, so that the major problems of history were strongly emphasized. When the pupils first began to study history causally, they also interpreted many minor problems without grasping the bearing on major historical problems. They were unable "to see the forest on account of the trees." The organization of textbook material into a few large units was helpful in enabling teachers to find the culminating peaks of American history about which to organize the problem work. In a recent textbook on American history appear the following comprehensive topics: (1) Beginnings; (2) Colonization; (3) Revolution and the Constitution; (4) The Federal Union; (5) National Spirit; (6) Sectionalism; (7) Civil War; (8) Reorganization; (9) The World Power. (Hart, A. B., "New American History.") Numerous other books with a similar organization have been published. Each of these topics suggests a central idea about which the details may be gathered, and this central idea readily can be stated in problem form. The major topics are considered in chronological order, and the general time period in which each was significant is noted, but there is considerable overlapping of the successive periods, inasmuch as the details have been selected, not because they happened to come in a certain time period, but because of the light they throw on the major problem. An improvement in the objective organization of history with the shifting of emphasis has led inevitably in the direction of a more effective organization of material for problem solving.

EVOLUTION OF TEACHING IN RELATION TO ACADEMIC HISTORY.

In relating the history work to the child's interests and experiences a similar evolution has been made. Formerly the schoolmaster assigned pages of the book. It was the child's business to adapt himself to the material. It was the teacher's business to "hear" the lessons so that he might ascertain whether the facts were mastered. If the work were difficult and distasteful to the child, so much the better, for his faculties would be developed all the more effectively. The emphasis placed on the facts of the textbook induced the pupil to memorize the contents which resulted in the retention of forms (words), but an inadequate mastery of ideas.

Emphasis on the interpretation of facts stimulated the pupils to relate events and to engage in reflective thinking. The further grouping of facts into a few large topics tended to emphasize the more important topics, selected because of their influence on the social group. The emphasis placed on the important phases of history and the organization of the numerous facts into a few comprehensive units have enabled teachers to indicate more readily to pupils the social values of the problems. As a result the history work can be motivated with less difficulty. The changing viewpoint and emphasis in the content of history is in complete harmony with the changing viewpoint and emphasis in method.

MOTIVATION THE MEANS OF MAKING AN OBJECTIVE PROBLEM A PROJECT-PROBLEM.

The modern textbooks are helpful in suggesting worth-while problems, but the teacher has the responsibility of establishing a vital relation between the pupil and the problems of history. It is not sufficient that the public, the historian, and the teacher shall believe that certain problems of history should be taught. The problem should be related to the child's interests and experiences in such a way that, because of individual or social values involved, it becomes a real personal problem to the child. In other words, the unit of work must be motivated. The quality of instruction is influenced by the degree of success of the teacher in this respect.

The varying extent to which problems may be motivated may be illustrated as follows: (a) Suppose the teacher merely assigns the problem, Study for Tomorrow's Recitation the Causes of the Revolutionary War. The teacher has done nothing to stimulate an interest in the problem. The problem may make a strong appeal to the child, but the teacher has not been responsible for this interest. (b) The teacher may assign the problem, and then discuss the Fourth of July and the Declaration of Independence in an endeavor to give the children a motive for wanting to interpret the problem. This type of assignment is comparable to the way of the pulpit orator, who reads his text and then proceeds to analyze it. The chief objection to this plan is the fact that the natural order is reversed, "the cart precedes the horse." (c) The teacher may discuss with the children their past experiences that have a bearing on the problem that she would like to raise. She may consider the Fourth of July and relating this to July 4, 1776, appeal to their dramatic instinct, by permitting them to dramatize the conditions under which the Declaration was adopted. Out of this introductory material the problem may be raised. (d) The children themselves may come to school with an interest aroused through outside agencies in the Fourth of July. The teacher may grasp the opportunity to assist them in answering their queries about the day, and out of their natural interests lead them into a consideration of the problems that will make this day meaningful.

Which offers the better chance for strong motivation, (a) an assignment merely stated in the form of a problem; (b) an assignment stated as a problem, followed by an endeavor to arouse interest in it; (c) a situation related to the child's interests, out of which the problem naturally arises in the mind of the child, the introductory material being managed by the teacher; or (d) an assignment which utilizes the interests, experiences, and wants that the child brings to school, by helping the child to interpret any particular problem that he brings to school for assistance? In most schools, the limitations under which the teachers work will not permit the realization of the last-mentioned assignment.

COMPONENT PARTS OF A PROBLEM-PROJECT.

The foregoing discussion has suggested the desira-

bility of recognizing a four-fold division of the problem-project: (a) introductory material out of which the problem arises; (b) the problem raised and concisely stated; (c) materials having a possible bearing on the problem secured and interpreted; and (d) the problem solved or the materials summarized.

HOW TO SECURE PROJECT-PROBLEMS.

It is not difficult to make a list of problems, the consideration of which is socially desirable. Neither is it difficult for the teacher, who recognizes her social responsibilities, to become enthusiastic in the consideration of these problems. The responsibility of directing a history class offers adequate motivation for the teacher. The pupils, however, have no such social responsibility, and the enthusiasm of the teacher while important, is not necessarily contagious. How, then, can a teacher adequately motivate her work so that the problems will arise out of the child's interests and experiences? There is no infallible way. Not always will the same introductory material arouse corresponding interest in different groups of children, nor will the same problem inevitably be raised by different groups out of the same initial discussion. The trained historian can list problems that will cover the field, but the technique of the skilled teacher is necessary to get a child to adopt a problem as his own personal problem.

The World War has brought forcefully to the front a suggestive solution of the problem of motivation. The schools were called on to aid other institutions in the struggle for the preservation of national ideals. The children enthusiastically assisted in Red Cross work, in the Liberty Bond issues, in the Thrift Stamp sales, and in innumerable other ways. The teacher did not need to worry about motivating such work. The pupils entered into the work wholeheartedly because they saw the worthwhileness of the activities in which they were engaged.

Other institutions no longer are making such insistent demands on the school, although to a greater extent than before the war organizations are bringing their problems to the school room, as is illustrated by the "safety first" work that has been successfully launched in the St. Louis schools at the request of the National Council of Safety. (Payne, E. George, "Education in Accident Prevention," Lyons & Carnahan, 1919.) Just as other organizations are asking for assistance from the schools, the schools should seek the co-operation of out-of-school forces. In other words, the school must find its problems in the world's work and play. The twentieth century child should be primarily concerned with the vital problems of his age. The history of the elementary schools is justifiable only to the extent that it can illuminate the problems of the present. The content of history should be relentlessly evaluated by this criterion, and all irrelevant material should be eliminated.

Current events are of invaluable assistance. The prohibition and woman suffrage amendments have offered an excellent opportunity for discussing real issues. That part of the Constitution bearing on the

provision for amendments and their adoption has been related to these vital problems. When Congress passed the recent prohibition measure the provision for a bill to become a law without the President's signature and also over the President's veto were strikingly brought out in the press discussions. The present difference of capital and labor, the proposed unionization of policemen and school teachers, the governmental supervision of trunk railroads, the opening of the Mississippi River to increased traffic, the requests of De Valera and his followers, the encouragement of foreign trade, are some of the more vital problems of to-day, that can be justified on the basis of social need, and means for the motivation of which can be secured more readily than for many problems, the issues of which have passed away.

FUTURE POSSIBILITIES OF HISTORY THROUGH THE USE OF THE PROJECT METHOD.

We may confidently look forward to the teaching of history as one of the indispensable subjects of the elementary schools. The textbook maker will study the vital problems of modern civilization, and will select his materials with the interpretation of modern problems in view. The teacher will make suggestive lists of desirable problems, and will carefully study the various possibilities of motivating them. She will take various situations that make a strong appeal to many children, and will consider the various problems that may arise therefrom. The child, confronted with problems that make a strong appeal, will wholeheartedly interpret the problem because of the worthwhileness of the unit of work. The outlook is especially promising in view of the fact that there is perfect harmony between the evolution of content and the evolution of method. Furthermore, the teacher is being prepared more effectively than ever for the careful performance of her important task of properly relating the material to the child.

"If we are to save ourselves from evolution downward it will be by acting on the plain lessons of the past and walking in the sane ways of progress which are the ways of reciprocal justice, clean politics and the political equality that, putting aside every appeal of class interests and every claim of class privilege, steadfastly levels up the still uneven world of things social. . . . And what is wanted for good government is real experience either in boot-making or in book-making, in moving goods or in playing golf, in selling over a counter or in working at a bench; but brains, judgment, rectitude, good faith, patience, the labors of the mind which may be rendered by men and women of any class," says Right Hon. J. M. Robertson in *The London Review of Reviews* for November.

Advocates of the adoption of the League and the ratification of the Treaty without reservations will read with pleasure H. S. Paul's article on "American Tradition and the League of Nations" (*Unpartizan Review*, January, April, 1920), in which he says: "In becoming a champion of humanity there is no departure from American traditions. . . . If America's participation in a league for peace would be a violation of the principles of our fathers, then vastly more so was our part in the great war."

Conference on the Report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools

Supplementary Papers

DECISIONS REACHED IN MEETINGS HELD AT
CLEVELAND, O., DECEMBER 30 AND 31, 1919.

BY PROFESSOR JOSEPH SCHAFER, CHAIRMAN.

Four-Year High School Course.

In the committee's opinion, not less than four years, five hours per week, should be devoted to the social studies as a whole. In the history courses special attention should be given to the principles of historical criticism and the laws of evidence, on the one hand, and on the other to the development of the habit of interested inquiry and reading. To this end definite place should be made for the study of current events through the systematic use of magazines and newspapers. Here especially the rules of criticism for good faith and accuracy should be applied. One of the ends to be sought in the study of the social sciences as a whole is a justified faith in the principles of American democracy.

1. It was agreed that the committee should prepare as Part I of its final report recommendations for the four-year high school course.

Minimum Requirements.

2. That these should include, as a minimum requirement for graduation on the part of all pupils taking a four-year course:

- (a) A course in modern world history (except America), beginning approximately at the middle of the seventeenth century and extending to the present.
- (b) A course in American history, treated topically, covering mainly the period from 1789 to the present, with special emphasis on the period since the Civil War.

This course should be primarily political, but it should take full account of economic, industrial and social factors which explain political movements.

Allocation in Grades.

3. That the above courses should be given, preferably, in grades ten and eleven respectively.

Other Social Studies.

4. In addition to this minimum requirement the committee recommends, as additional required courses, where practicable:

- (a) For the ninth grade a course in industrial organization and civics which shall include "the development of an appreciation of the social significance of all work, of the social value and interdependence of all occupations, of the opportunities and necessity for good citizenship in vocational life, of the

necessity for social control, governmental and otherwise, of the economic activities of the community, of how government aids the citizen in his vocational life and of how the young citizen may prepare himself for a definite occupation." In this connection, we suggest the study of ten great industries, as follows: The fisheries and fur trade; lumbering; meat, hides and wool; wheat; corn; cotton; iron and steel; coal; gold, silver and copper; and oil.

- (b) For the twelfth grade a course in the problems of American democracy. This should include some of the basic principles of economics, political science and sociology, stated in elementary terms, but should consist mainly of the study of concrete present-day problems illustrating these principles.

The committee hopes to secure the co-operation of organizations of economists, political scientists, and sociologists in preparing syllabi for the above courses.

Electives in History.

5. It is by no means the intention of the committee to suggest a reduction in the time usually allotted to history in the high school program. It is rather the intention, while retaining in full force and effect the list of history offerings in the high school to increase the positive requirements in social studies for graduation as a guarantee of citizenship training. In addition, therefore, to the above required courses, the committee recommends the offering in the future as in the past of a variety of elective courses in history and the other social studies. It is not necessary that elective history courses should be taken in strictly chronological order.

Following are the courses suggested:

- (a) The ancient world to about 800 A. D. This course should be so placed in the program as not to interfere with the required courses outlined above.
- (b) A survey of ancient and medieval history to approximately the middle of the seventeenth century. If convenient this should be taken before the required course in modern world history of the tenth grade.
- (c) The history of England and the British Empire.
- (d) A course involving an intensive study of local, state, or regional history, or of some particular period or movement in the history of the Americas.
- (e) A similar course involving an intensive study of some particular period or movement in

European history. This might well take the form of the study of the background and history of the Great War.

- (f) An intensive study of the recent history of the Far East.

Syllabi.

6. The committee expects to present, in its report, syllabi for the four required courses in social studies. In these, lists of topics will be presented, clearly defined as to their scope and carefully phrased. Each topic will be so analyzed as to make clear the exact ground covered and suggestions will be offered the teacher as aids in presenting the work. A brief list of references for the use of the teacher will be included, together with a list of readings for the pupils, selected with a view to interest and power to arouse enthusiasm in the subject.

It does not seem practicable to define in a similar manner the content of the elective courses for publication in our report. Some such outlines have already been prepared. The committee will do what it can to facilitate the publication elsewhere of such analyses, and expects to draw attention in its final report to such of these as seem appropriate.

Junior High School.

7. The above program can be applied without difficulty to school organizations pivoting upon the junior high school. The course in industrial organization and civics designed for the ninth grade will fall in the last year of the junior high school. The other courses will come in the senior high school—tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades. Recommendations for grades seven and eight in the junior high school will be given in Part II of the committee's final report.

The First Eight Grades.

As a result of the discussions of the committee's preliminary report, the work for the first eight grades, together with its adaptation to the junior high school organization will be reserved for Part II of the final report.

The committee recognizes that in the absence of such detailed textbooks or completely worked out syllabi for teachers as Prof. Henry Johnson had in mind its proposed plan for the first six grades cannot be realized. For the present, therefore, it recommends the use of the Committee of Eight Program, with such modifications as have commended themselves to teachers, principals and superintendents.

Instruction in Civics.

In the field of civics the committee recommends, tentatively, for the first eight grades the tentative course prepared by the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association. This includes:

Grades I to III—Civic virtues (obedience, courtesy, punctuality, fair-play, honesty, etc.) taught through stories, poems, songs and play.

Grades IV to V—Community co-operation (fur-

nishing of food, clothing, shelter, medical aid, transportation, protection, etc.) taught through pupils' observation of the life around them.

Grade VI—Industrial co-operation (community service through occupations, the qualifications for each, and the mutual relations of employer and employee).

Grades VII to VIII—Community organization (with emphasis on local, state and national organization for common purposes; leadership and the control of leadership).

APPLICATION TO CONDITIONS IN NEW ENGLAND

BY PROF. HERBERT D. FOSTER, DARTMOUTH COLLEGE

As we first read over the report of this committee, we probably sympathized with its general aims, and welcomed its provision for more attention to modern European and recent American history. We were grateful for its policy of open diplomacy, and its desire that teachers should submit suggestions and criticisms.

As we reread the report more carefully to see whether we would take the responsibility of advising its acceptance, rejection, or modification, we stop to ask two fundamental questions:

1. Do the courses, one by one, seem likely to develop sound historical information and historical-mindedness, and do the "aims," as stated, cover the distinctive contribution of history?

2. Are the courses likely to develop citizenship that is sound and broad?

If we are thoroughgoing in our devotion to historical scholarship and American citizenship, we must base our decision upon our answers to some such fundamental questions.

History will have to offer something more solid and lasting, less smattering and superficial than heretofore, if it is to make its distinctive contribution to American education and citizenship; and if history is to meet the needs of the returning soldier or of the younger pupils who will grow up in an atmosphere of keener competition, of struggle with problems which will demand sounder knowledge and sounder ways of thinking than we have had. Ill-digested and ill-arranged information lacking in sequence will never lead to sound consequences in either history or citizenship. Chronology should not be a millstone to these little ones, but it should give them some historical milestones (to parody the New Hampshire governor's announcement that the inauguration of the new president "marks another millstone in the history of Dartmouth").

Is the citizenship to be developed under this report likely to be sound? If it is likely to be narrow, self-centered, unhistorical, based on propaganda, then the committee and all of us will guard against the report as a most dangerous, reactionary movement.

What are the answers that come from experienced, representative teachers in response to a questionnaire sent (after consultation with the secretary of this committee and with his approval (to all members of

the New England History Teachers' Association, asking whether they approved the courses recommended by the committee?

This questionnaire was as follows:

What are your answers to the following questions regarding "The Suggested Course of Study" of the "Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in Schools?" (Printed in *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, June, 1919, page 350.)

1. Do you approve the course for the elementary school, grades 1-6?

2d grade: "The making of the Community?"

3d grade: "How Europeans found our continent and what they did with it?"

4th grade: "How Englishmen became Americans, 1607-1783?"

5th grade: "The United States, 1783-1877?"

6th grade: "The United States since 1877 (half year). How we are governed to-day (half year)?"

2. Do you approve the course for Junior High School, Grades 7-9, "American History in its world setting?"

7th grade: "The world before 1607 and the beginnings of American History, etc.?"

8th grade: "The world since 1607 viewed in relation to the evolution and expanding world influence of the United States?"

9th grade: "Community and national activities. Combines recent economic and social history with commercial geography and civics?"

(9th grade, alternate course. "For those pupils of the ninth grade who expect to complete the senior high school, the committee recommends as an alternative to the above, a course in the progress of civilization from earliest times to about 1650.")

3. Do you approve this course "from earliest times to about 1650?"

4. Do you approve the courses for "Senior High School," grades 10-12, "The Modern World?"

10th grade: "Progress toward world democracy, 1650, to the present, mainly European, but with some attention also to the rest of non-American world?"

11th grade: "United States History during the national period."

12th grade: "Social, economic, and political principles and problems?"

Please write *yes* or *no* against at least questions numbered 1, 2, 3, 4. (If you so desire, write also your answer *yes* or *no* to question for each grade.) Add any comments below.

Please sign your name and give name of school.

The answers are desired for use in presenting the views of teachers of history in New England (a) to the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, and (b) in the discussion of that committee's report at Cleveland meeting of American Historical

Association. It is sent out after consultation with and approval of the secretary of that committee.

Please mail promptly this sheet with your answers to
HERBERT D. FOSTER,

Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.,

so as to arrive in Hanover before December 15, if possible.

Signature of Teacher

Name of School

The objections made in reply to the questionnaire centre (1) around the general plan for the junior high school ("American History in Its World Setting") with the following three courses, viz.:

7th grade: "The world before 1607 and the beginnings of American history, etc."

8th grade: "The world since 1607 viewed in relation to the evolution and expanding world influence of the United States."

9th grade (alternate course). "In the progress of civilization from the earliest times to about 1650."

(2) In the senior high school criticism is directed against two courses:

10th grade: "Progress toward world democracy, 1650, to the present, mainly European, but with some attention also to the rest of the non-American world."

12th grade: "Social, economic and political principles and problems."

As you read the above headings for courses, can you visualize eleven-year-old Maggie with her nice little pink bows, or fourteen-year-old John, in last summer's camp-sweater and short pants, rough-housing in the alley to the movies, tackling in school intelligently such "world settings" and "progress toward world democracy," or even John's older sister just out of two or three years in the normal school, leading Maggie and John and her dance partners to view "the world since 1607 in relation to the evolution and expanding world influence of the United States." Will John "lap this up?" Or will he, like wise Mr. Salteena, of *The Young Visitors*, avoid this "in case he might be sick upon the journey?"

Objections by the teachers replying to the questionnaire were especially strong against the alternate course for the 9th grade, "in the progress of civilization from the earliest times to about 1650." Less than a third of those replying approved this course. Two-thirds either definitely disapproved the course, or (in five cases) were doubtful. Of those who object to this course to 1650, more than two-thirds are school teachers, and the rest of the objectors are teachers of varied and practical experience.

From the objections made by these teachers of history, the following are quoted:

"I am afraid a course which undertook to cover so much ground would deal in generalities, would be too much like the 'universal history' which has failed to hold its place."

"The ground covered is so large that only a mature mind could grasp the development required by

the outline. . . . Definite courses (in ancient, medieval and modern, and English history) would leave a stronger impression than such scattering of thought and shifting of subject . . . in 7th, 8th, 9th (alternate) and 10th grades."

"The committee errs in emphasizing abstract ideas before pupils are mature enough to appreciate them."

"I have a deeply rooted distrust of the capacity of school children to make any profitable use of large, vague conceptions, and abstract generalizations."

"By far too large a subject to cover in one year, giving children vague, general and often inaccurate conceptions."

"A pupil who had gone through this course would have a great smattering but not definite training in study."

"There is danger of a smattering that would leave the pupil confused, and with little definite information."

One teacher asks (like Professor Bourne in his discussion), why there should be two such courses on the background of European history, one in the 7th and then another in the 9th grade? The course to 1650 cannot be defended as essential in the committee's program on the ground that it is necessary in order to give pupils a continuous course from earliest times to the present, because (1) this course to 1650 is only suggested by the committee as an alternate course; and (2) much the same background is provided for in the 7th grade, "The world before 1607."

What is *not* provided for by this alternate course to 1650 is a course in ancient history. The lack of an ancient history course would do much to prevent the adoption of the report in two kinds of schools, viz.: in many of the largest and most thorough schools, and in many of the smallest and inadequately equipped schools with teachers confessedly unable to handle so extraordinary a range as that "from earliest times to about 1650."

"The chief defect in the report, and the one I deplore very much," writes an experienced high school teacher who has had practice in making of outlines and much conversation and correspondence with other teachers of history, "is the fact that there is no place in the high school for a distinct course in ancient history. The course offered for the 9th grade (to 1650) is too much of a hop, skip, and a jump. I do not feel that the committee has met the needs of high school pupils in omitting or slighting a course in ancient history." He adds that in all the schools from which he has had replies, ancient history is offered, and there is general objection to the proposed course to 1650, partly because it "would be somewhat superficial." His investigation, undertaken with neither of us knowing the other was making such enquiries, leads to the same results as mine.

As a bit of constructive criticism, the following suggestion is based on these two investigations and suggested to the committee. Would it not be possible to meet the objections of those who find the course to 1650 vague and superficial, and also the desires of

those who see the need of a distinct course in ancient history by substituting for the proposed alternate course the following:

"Ancient history to about 800, or to such date as can be reached without superficiality."

Why not encourage schools fitted by environment, equipment, and ideals to teach ancient history well, to continue doing something well? Why not at the same time guard the teacher frankly against the lurking danger of superficiality by frankly indicating that danger in the heading for the course? "A small area well cultivated" is as sound a principle as it was in the days of Roger Ascham and his famous pupil, Queen Elizabeth.

A second objection which must be taken seriously into account is an honest and well-considered feeling that the committee's report will endanger citizenship, because (1) of a lack of backbone in the program, and (2) of the likelihood of increasing an already dangerous conception of America.

Two men, both outside New England, and both vigorous and successful teachers of citizenship and history to soldiers in France and students in America, write thus regarding the danger to citizenship:

"My deep impression is that the report is too much centered in America. Those who leave school at the end of the junior high school, I feel, will likely have a notion of America as the centre of the universe. We are altogether too prone, in America, to assume that position now."

The second writes: "I am afraid of those courses which treat the history of the world in relation to one's own particular state. In general it seems to me you would not only get a very warped viewpoint as regards the relative importance of various states. One would also tend to take up other states only when they come into contact—and usually offensive contact—with one's own country, the result being that the student will get the notion that his country is always right and the other country always wrong. I had that illustrated to me one time in Cornell when in a course on the teaching of history in secondary schools we had a teacher of German leading the discussion, the theme being how much better history was taught in Germany than in this country, the method being similar to that of the new prospectus. I remarked to him at that time that it seemed to me that the Germans touched upon the history of other states only when they came into a clash with Germany, and he agreed. I asked him if this did not lead to an undue exaltation of Germany, and he said, 'Oh, yes. That was exactly what one was intended to do.' We know the result."

Many of us who have studied history in Germany, and have observed its teaching day after day in German schools, would agree with this criticism. We believe the committee has as keen a desire for good Americanism as its critics; but we wish to ask the committee to show its breadth of Americanism by taking out of its program and its titles of courses (as now stated) what seems to some intelligent teachers a dan-

ger of Prussianization of our work in history and citizenship. We believe the committee, in view of replies quoted above and below, will recognize a danger seen by others. This paper does not present a critical theory as to the intentions of the committee; it does give first-hand information as to the indisputable impression made upon experienced teachers by the present statement of courses. We believe the committee will recognize a possible danger. We should like to be assured before approving the courses that they have succeeded in removing the danger.

Teachers of history in New England make on the same point the following frank criticisms:

"On the whole, I think this is worse than the present system. It leaves too much room for propaganda and piffle, and views the world from a too exclusively American angle."

"The whole scheme seems too narrow, centering far too much on America, when the children should be learning also of Greece, Rome, and medieval Europe as a background for appreciation of art and literature, as well as of historical problems."

"I object," writes a school principal and teacher of history and ex-service man, "to the over-emphasis of nationalism—as deplorable in any people as class consciousness. The pyramids were not built nor the Magna Charta signed in order that the American republic might flourish. Minds of six to eighteen years are not capable of dealing with abstractions. . . . A fair-minded approach to any question, a sense of values, high standards of truth, and discrimination between fact and opinion can be taught; and, if learned, the appreciation of what is valuable in our institutions and the desire to cherish them will follow."

Two other replies are so frank that it is only after considerable hesitation, and in view of what the undergraduate might call the sportsmanlike desire of the committee for the frankest criticism, that they are given in the same spirit that they will be received by the committee. Will the committee and their friends listen with the thought of getting at how two men of unusual experience and opportunities for knowing the situation in various parts of the country, neither of them open to the reproach of being born or educated in New England, and each of them carrying weight in this country and abroad, "think on these things?"

One writes, with the reservation that he cannot judge definitively until he has "seen the full report of the committee," not yet published. "I am, however, not impressed by the tone of the report as indicated by the titles for the work of the various years. Thus, in the eighth grade, we are asked to teach 'The expanding world influence of the United States' at the very moment when this is rapidly contracting. . . . My chief objection to the high school course is that the titles of the tenth and twelfth grades are definitely propagandist. Whose 'social, economic and political principles' are to be taught? I dislike to see the American Historical Association give its endorsement to any propagandist program. More specifically, I should like to see some time set apart for history as a study of a body of facts upon which

there is substantial agreement among scholars, rather than the principles of progress held by any particular group of people, however large and representative."

The other writes: "We are asked, it seems to me, to substitute for history, propaganda in the interests of Americanization. We are asked to approve the thoroughly unsound proposition that primary and high school pupils can comprehend social, economic and political principles, and that they can grasp the difficult abstractions involved in any presentation of the movement of civilization. If our educators are clear that this sort of stuff is to form an important item in primary and high school instruction, it seems to me that we have a vested interest in the name history and ought to require them to respect it."

We may not agree with the expressions, or with all of the conclusions of these teachers of history in New England and elsewhere. But from answers of judicious teachers of experience and devotion, I am led to conclude that the report of the committee (as it appeared in the *JUNE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, and is reprinted before us to-day), praiseworthy as it was in its general aims, and interesting as it is in its attempts, will, even in the minds of the committee, need revision not only to meet the mature convictions of representative teachers, but also to avoid three dangers:

1. It should attempt to cover less ground and less abstract material, and should rather train teachers and pupils to do something well. This is particularly to be desired through substitution of a course in ancient history for the alternate ninth grade course, "from earliest times to about 1650." The avoidance of the abstract and of too wide a range is especially necessary in view of the present and probable future limited training of teachers.

2. In pursuance of the above objects, and also in accordance with the original and subsequently stated purpose of the Charleston and Washington conferences of the association upon this subject (as Doctor Sullivan has stated), the syllabus for each course should follow the principle of exclusion of unessentials, in order to secure time and liberty for the inclusion of essentials. Then (as experience in the making of other syllabi for schools has demonstrated) the tentative syllabus should be tried out, in part, at least, and in varying types of schools (not merely in the largest city schools) on the actual Maggie and John before the whole syllabus of any course is printed in full.

3. The report, in the light of criticisms, should so modify titles and expressions as to avoid the narrow and provincial, or the notion that America is the center of the universe, the only body really moving on, while the rest of the world is merely "setting."

Prof. W. B. Morris, of the United States Naval Academy, has prepared "A Handy Guide to the Naval History of the World War, 1914 to 1918, as Found in the United States Naval Institute Proceedings, especially the Naval War Notes," which appears in the *Naval Institute Proceedings*, Vol. 45, Number 11 (November, 1919).

Department of Social Studies

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH

The National Committee for Teaching Citizenship

THOMAS M. BALLIET, Chairman

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EFFECTIVE CITIZENSHIP IN A DEMOCRACY

BY LAURENCE C. STAPLES, A.M.

There is a story connected with the Home Rule movement in Ireland which has a more general application than some of us are at first hearing ready to admit. So thoroughly had the Irish people come to believe that Home Rule was a panacea for their social and economic, as well as their political ills, that at the time when Gladstone's Home Rule Bill was apparently on the point of being passed by the Parliament at Westminster, a Connemara peasant was found who, immediately this news was received, ceased to plant his potatoes! It was his firm belief that once Home Rule was enacted, spontaneous generation would generously provide for the material needs of the Irish people.

We have not been altogether free from this simple-mindedness in this country. We, too, have had explicit faith in certain words. Even to-day various political candidates of a certain character are asking for our support on a platform of "100% Americanism." Let Americans rule the land, they say, and presto! all our political, social and economic problems will disappear. Let the people of the country pronounce with unanimity their faith in this principle and the chorus of their voices will act as an "Open Sesame" to a new Utopia! The practical problem as to what Americanism involves has apparently no more entered the minds of these individuals than had the questions of scientific agriculture and co-operative organization concerned the trusting Home Ruler of poverty-stricken Ireland.

Similarly, no recipe for the overcoming of all our difficulties has been more commonly used than "Democracy." It is a word to conjure with; a word which has summoned large numbers of people to these shores! a word in which Americans have unbounded faith. In the minds of many, it is an inalienable possession of this nation. By its magic power, the solution of our political, social and economic problems in the most advantageous way is supposedly assured. If its repeated incantation has not been expected to bring about the spontaneous generation of potatoes, it has at least been accepted as a guarantee of individual happiness and general prosperity.

This article does not presume to inquire whether or not our government is theoretically constructed on the

most democratic lines possible. For the purposes of the argument, it is assumed that in form it meets the requirement of the democratic ideal. All men of maturity are entitled to the vote, and with woman's suffrage an all but accomplished fact, a great outstanding limitation is at least theoretically overcome. There may be some justification for the claim that our governing bodies are not responsive to the will of the people, but in this particular discussion the claim is set aside. Nor is it proposed to consider whether political democracy insures social and economic democracy. These are questions of extreme importance which our country must face squarely, but they are not the aspect of the subject with which this article is concerned.

Here it is hoped to show one of the more obvious ways in which the existence of a democratic form of government by no means assures us of democratic government. For the possession of the suffrage by all mature persons and effective citizenship do not necessarily go together. Many of us were amazed, and continue to be so, at the percentage of illiteracy revealed by the draft figures. That roughly 25% of the young men who were called for military service could not read intelligently an ordinary newspaper article is almost unbelievable. Such a condition is to be expected in the Balkans; we assume that it might exist in certain other European countries. But America—never! Nevertheless, the facts are incontrovertible. Ignorance, even to the extent of illiteracy, is a serious limitation on our democracy. One-fourth of our citizens lack this most essential qualification for citizenship in a democratic state, and are theoretically deprived of the suffrage. If any of this group vote, it is not as independent individuals, but as the tools of others.

Important as this fact is, however, it does not overshadow another element in the situation which is not less significant. Effective citizenship in a democracy requires something more than ability to read and write. If 25% of our people are not literate, a much larger proportion have had no particular preparation in the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. They have received no training which would help them to make wise judgments in regard to the various problems which they encounter as citizens of a democratic state. These problems are growing in number and complexity as the nation awakens to the fact that the economic and social welfare of the people is a matter

of public and not merely individual concern. For years, specialists have realized the importance of the problem of feeble-mindedness. They have known how closely it was allied to the problems of delinquency, poor relief and the social evil. They have understood that by the segregation of all the feeble-minded of one generation, this constant and heavy burden could be practically eliminated. Yet only gradually are steps being taken to grapple effectively with this problem. For years money has been poured into the seemingly bottomless pit of poor relief. Specialists have realized that the poverty from which relief was sought could in many cases be prevented. The bulk of it could be directly traced to certain preventable conditions, among which were sickness, often accounted for by housing conditions; unemployment, which might be obviated by the provision of labor exchanges or better vocation education and guidance; industrial accidents, involving the sole means of support in a family, and intemperance, encouraged by the lack of proper recreational facilities. Yet we are still sinking vast sums in poor relief and treating with the utmost parsimony efforts for the elimination of the fundamental causes. Hundreds of thousands of immigrants have been flooding into the country, and we are only now awaking to the fact that comparatively few efforts have been made to adapt them to the new conditions of American life. And to-day the great problem of the relations between capital and labor has become critical partly because it has been neglected so long. The huge debt acquired by the war requires large increases in the revenue of the country, but few people understand what methods of taxation to raise the large sum necessary would be equitable and fair. These and many other problems of a similar character face all American citizens to-day. But practically no training has been provided to enable them to solve these questions wisely. And even in a democratic state, ability to do this is not to be miraculously acquired!

There are those, it is true, who see no necessity for the preparation of the mass of the people in this field. Democracy in its purer form is, they say in substance, impossible in the complexity of the modern state. It is foolish to believe that all citizens can or should concern themselves with the large social, economic and political problems which are constantly arising. Let us admit, they assert, that ignorance of the more technical problems of government is the inevitable lot of the mass of the population. These specific problems are for specialists only. An official class to take care of all matters of public concern must be created. If these men are chosen wisely, it will not be necessary for the ordinary citizen to concern himself further with any of these matters. Bureaucracy, they say, is the inevitable outcome of a modern democracy.

Can this country be true to its democratic traditions and adopt this course? Can there be any such complete delegation of authority without danger to our fundamental democratic institutions? Can the citizens choose their representatives and specialists

wisely without some knowledge of the problems which these representatives and specialists must solve? Can a true democracy as we understand it be realized where general ignorance in this field prevails?

These questions in themselves indicate why the mass of the people must be trained in economics, government, and sociology as well as in the more elementary studies of the school curriculum. This is necessary, in the first place, to enable them to choose their representatives in governing bodies wisely. It should be impossible for a man to be elected to public office simply on the basis of a firm belief in "100% Americanism." His attitude toward the great economic, political and social problems of the day should be made clear. Second, as the practice of popular referendums is extended, individual voters will be forced to make decisions concerning specific problems of national policy. It is obvious that they cannot do this without some knowledge of the problems concerned. Third, and this is perhaps most important of all, the true citizen of a democracy, through the agency of public opinion, is a constant participant in the affairs of government. Representatives are still somewhat responsive to this force. They will become more so as the electorate becomes better informed on public questions. At the present time, the force of public opinion, when it is brought to bear on representatives, is exerted by a small and unrepresentative group. That part of the people which is ignorant concerning a particular problem is at the mercy of those who are, often for very selfish reasons, informed. Each and every citizen in a democratic state must be definitely prepared for these larger duties of citizenship if a real democracy is to be attained.

"In a democracy," stated Commissioner Claxton, of the United States Bureau of Education, the other day, "the most important thing is always education. Democracy without universal education is only a prelude to a farce or a tragedy. We must educate or we perish. A government can never be of the people, for the people and by the people unless the people themselves understand the work of their government."

If this is true—and those who really believe in democracy will agree that it is—the nation must provide all its citizens with education, not only in the elementary subjects which are necessary to qualify for citizenship, but directly in the practical problems which the citizen faces. Having given the privilege of participation in public affairs to the mass of the people, steps must be taken to insure an intelligent participation. The schools as the bulwarks of democracy must provide this vitally important training. Uninformed in questions of governmental policy, an ignorant body of citizens may very quickly wreck our democratic government. Such, for instance, are the anarchists. They do not understand the fundamental principles and aims of democracy. This group and others are a menace to our form of government because they have received no proper training.

As Americans, we believe in democracy. We have faith that only with this form of government can the greatest happiness for the greatest number or the

largest possibilities of self-realization be achieved. But we must realize that true democracy is incompatible with ignorance concerning the duties and responsibilities of citizenship and the problems of a political, social and economic nature which the citizen must face. Without trained and informed citizens possessing ability to judge intelligently the manifold questions of the day, government cannot be by the people. Democracy is under these conditions no longer a guarantee of individual happiness and social well-being. It, like Home Rule, is no more than an empty shibboleth. Literacy, important as it is, touches only the fringe of the problem. However democratic in form our government may be, it cannot function as a democracy unless the citizens are prepared for effective citizenship.

Democracy is not already achieved; it is merely undertaken. The founders of this country furnished us, not with the key to all our difficulties, but with a goal. This goal, and the material and spiritual advantages which we associate with it, is not a matter of "spontaneous generation." Only by constant education and training for more effective citizenship can it be in any sense achieved.

TEACHING SOCIAL ECONOMICS

BY MISS RUTH WANGER, HEAD OF HISTORY DEPARTMENT, SOUTH PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

Six years ago I was unexpectedly called upon to teach a class in economics in a college preparatory school. The textbook was poorly written for high school pupils, confining itself to a matter-of-fact presentation of economic law and theory. My pupils were wide-awake, intelligent and eager girls in their last year of high school. They had led sheltered lives, knew little of the outside world, and for many of them graduation from high school would end their formal training. It seemed utterly out of the question to give them a five months' drill in economic theory when this was perhaps the one chance to interest their growing minds in the problems which have developed from modern economic conditions.

Consequently, except for reference work, we abandoned the textbook, and drew up a list of problems in which every girl in the class was interested. These problems included women and children in industry, immigration, unemployment, the effect of the war on industry, defectives, and juvenile crime. Each girl was allowed to choose the problem in which she was particularly interested, and after we, as a class, had made a little survey of the field, the girls were allowed to work intensively on the problems they had chosen. They reported on their work in class every two or three weeks, the other girls taking notes, asking questions and supplying additional information. The girls were sent to the public library for material. Recent books on their subjects were suggested, such as Spargo's "Bitter Cry of the Children" and the story

of Helen Keller's life. In addition, we watched the *Survey* very closely for articles that were applicable. The girl who had chosen as her subject, "The Effect of the War on Industry," went through the new magazines every week for information. Frequent trips were made to institutions. These proved interesting and beneficial. The methods of the juvenile court as contrasted with the county courts brought forth much discussion. Both courts had been attended after pains had been taken to discover the nature of the cases to be tried. We visited the jail—one of the worst in the country—which gave point to our discussion of the purpose and effectiveness of punishment for crime. An expedition was made to several factories, showing both good and bad conditions of labor, and we went also to such places as the oral school for deaf children and the school for cripples.

The girls were in many cases the daughters of manufacturers. They discussed the problems which they had chosen with their fathers, and often brought the parental point of view to the class. Where it seemed a bit prejudiced, the girls wanted to have it discussed and formed their own conclusions on the matter. Their conclusions, it may be said, were not always in accord with those of their parents.

At the end of the term, the papers which each girl had handed in on the problem she had studied showed, almost without exception, the deep and sympathetic interest the girl had taken in her special work, while the general examination covering all problems proved the value of the class reports to which all had listened. After that year's experience, as little time was spent on economic theory as was in keeping with the policy of the school and essential for understanding the reading done on the more practical problems.

For the last two and one-half years, I have been teaching economics in the South Philadelphia High School for Girls. The course has been given in the last half of the third year, for four periods a week, and the first half of the fourth year, two periods a week. The method of procedure has varied. Occasionally, we have tried the special problem method of my first experience. But where the classes are large, there is not sufficient time for class reports and discussions, with the result that under this system the girls get a very unsatisfactory smattering of all but their own problem. Consequently, we have had to work on a small group of problems as a class. Generally Burch and Nearing's "Elements of Economics" has been used as a text, supplemented by Towne's "Social Problems" and Burch and Batterson's "American Social Problems." The girls are required to read in other books such as Abbott's "Women in Industry," Addams' "Democracy and Social Ethics" and "Twenty Years at Hull House," Richardson's "Spending Money," Riis's "Children of the Poor," Spargo's "The Bitter Cry of the Children," Steiner's "Ebb and Flow of the Immigrant Tide." Occasional brief reports on this supplementary reading are given by the various girls in the class, but no attempt is made to have one girl concentrate on a single topic.

In fact, that is avoided, since it would mean such extreme superficiality in her understanding of other problems. Some girls have been able and willing to subscribe to the *Survey*, and we have emphasized and studied in detail the particular problems handled in current numbers of this magazine. Where the girls have not subscribed they have been referred to the *Survey* for special topics, as also to other magazines, using the Reader's Guide, to which we have access in school, to look up the subjects in which the class is interested.

During the first term, we have concentrated on production and the problems which arise immediately therefrom; in the second term we have turned to the problems of distribution, of defectives and delinquents. We have studied economic experiments that have been made, and considered the possibilities for the future. We have continued, wherever possible, our visits to institutions. Trips are very popular, and the teacher usually has a large following when she visits a factory, a school for defectives, a court room or a charitable institution.

As from one-third to one-half of our children have been employed at some time in their lives, they can give us out of their own experience much first-hand information on conditions in factories and department stores. Since we try particularly to study our problems as they apply to our own city, this information is very helpful. Last term we gave out questionnaires for first-hand information on the labor of women and children. The girls were asked to fill out copies if they themselves had worked, and were also asked to get women relatives and friends who work to fill out copies. Several hundred questionnaires were returned, and we were thus enabled to make a little first-hand study of the problem of woman and child labor in Philadelphia. Another problem which was similarly studied was the increase in wages since 1914 as compared with the increase in cost of living. The girls were asked to bring in the figures of the income of their families in 1914 and at present. As no names were to be written on the papers, they were quite willing to do this.

A problem which we have not yet studied in detail, but which we hope to work upon this next term is the Americanization of the foreigner in Philadelphia. Since over fifty per cent. of our children are Russian Jews and another ten per cent. are Italian, we expect to get very interesting information on this subject.

Our class discussions are very much alive, for most of the girls are eager to take part. Although we are in a distinctly socialistic community, we find a rather marked absence of extreme socialistic tendencies among our students. They are usually quite willing to reserve judgment until arguments on both sides have been presented. We avoid argument for argument's sake, *showing the worthlessness of opinions not based on knowledge of facts*, and as a result the girls ordinarily find for themselves the moderate and reasonable course. Their questions are often searching, and while they are frequently indignant with the injus-

tices existing at present, usually with very little help from the teacher they come to realize the necessity of the slow evolutionary process by which real progress is made. At our last Commencement, one of the speakers was a young Russian Jewess. She conducted an open forum on the present relation between capital and labor. Her speech was based on the proposed plan of the President's Industrial Conference for arbitration. The speech, of course, had the supervision of the teachers, but when the subject was thrown open for discussion and questions were asked by the house, the girl's clear thinking and sane judgment were continually in evidence. The questions on labor gave her every opportunity to express her own views, and in every case she answered as a thoughtful and earnest citizen should. It seemed to us the best possible evidence that a sane consideration of economic problems in school has more real weight with high school students than indiscriminate rantings heard outside.

This course is now compulsory for every girl in the school, but at the same time only one term in the senior year is allowed for it. Since it has been necessary to reduce the material covered, we are paying less attention than ever to theory. Every new experience in this direction confirms more heartily the late Carleton Parker in his contention that theory is for the advanced and not the elementary student of economics.

The course is a very popular one, both with teachers and pupils. While the work of the second term has heretofore been elective, with a commercial subject as a possible alternative to social economics, most of the girls have chosen the latter. The teachers on their side feel that this course gives them the opportunity to focus all the work of the social sciences and to prepare the girls directly to play an intelligent part in the world's work.

IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL STUDIES

The following comments concerning courses in sociology made by various principals and superintendents, have recently been received. Approval of the work in this field is unanimous.

"I find that the students are more interested in this work than in any other subject which they are taking." "A most opportune course for young Americans. Too bad it does not replace physics or mathematics as a required course." "The most practical course in the school curriculum." "Some flunkers took great interest in it and did good work." "Every student thought course ought to be required." "Students who have been hard to reach otherwise have been aroused to a new interest because the subject appeals to them as live."

And there are many more of a similar nature.

A non-political Roosevelt-America League has been formed which is to have branches in grade schools, high schools and colleges. Among its purposes is

"to develop intelligent patriotism and the understanding of the duties and opportunities of American citizenship in the spirit of Roosevelt's practical idealism." It is hoped that this organization will not be satisfied with the narrow "patriotism" and "citizenship" with which we are so familiar in these days. Roosevelt stood for an intelligent and active participation by citizens in public affairs. He believed in vigorous public opinion. The teaching of social studies in secondary schools should be an essential part of this program.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY.

At the Riverview Union High School, Antioch, California, an interesting course in practical psychology is conducted. "Most people," says the principal, W. Hardin Hughes, "think that psychology is beyond high school students. I know it is not, if the material is properly selected." Special emphasis is given to the questions of social psychology. A knowledge of this subject is particularly important at a time when the psychology of advertising and propaganda is developing so largely as it is today. Advertising and propaganda depend on a knowledge of social psychology. If students would protect themselves against the tricks of the trade, and at the same time recognize the valuable aspects of advertising and propaganda, a knowledge of the fundamental principles of psychology is essential.

The committee is receiving many inquiries concerning a course of study in the social sciences for secondary schools. These indicate a rapidly developing interest. Recently the Montana State Department of Public Instruction sent such a request for information. A comprehensive high school course of study in the social sciences for use throughout the state is being prepared.

The course in sociology at the Hollywood High School, Los Angeles, California, includes in addition to recitations and reports, a thesis on some economic or social problem. Experience has shown that the students take a keen interest in this work. They not only summarize the facts and study the attitude of other persons on the problem with which they are concerned, but they also work out their own solution. This independent thinking is an essential part of a real education.

In connection with the course in economics, the students prepare a series of maps showing the geographical distribution of the production of various articles. This familiarizes them with questions of economic geography and with a few outstanding principles of the localization of industries.

The Cosmopolitan Club is a very popular feature. Membership is voluntary, but includes practically all those who take the various courses in the social sciences. A dinner is held once a month at which the members discuss political, social and economic problems in the country whose diet has been illustrated by the menu of the evening.

"Among those soon to become voters are the working boys and those high school boys who do not go to

college. Some will be in the capitalistic group, many will belong to labor unions whose leaders will not be graduates of Princeton or Harvard. Ordinarily, the only way they will get social and economic information is from the street corner agitator and other unreliable sources. These boys will be a help in the body politic or a drain on the State's resources." Clarence C. Robinson, who places these alternatives before us, has his solution of the problem. So does the committee. What's yours?

Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, of Harvard, and Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, of the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy, are preparing a bibliography for the use of teachers in social studies in elementary and secondary schools. It is hoped to publish this in the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* at an early date.

PRACTICAL TRAINING IN CITIZENSHIP.

An interesting experiment in practical citizenship training has been carried on in the Washington Junior High School, Rochester, New York. This school forms an organized community, with its own corporate life. A definite amount of time is set aside each day for "school activities." First, each "home room" is organized with various officers. The teachers act as counselors. Vital questions of concern to the pupils, though seemingly trifles to the more mature mind, are subjects of earnest discussion. A program committee determines the particular matters considered. These cover a very wide field.

The "home room" groups are federated into one large "School Community," inclusive of faculty and student body. Monthly meetings are held. Special committees are named for various purposes, including a committee in complete charge of the students' lunch room, and a bicycle committee in charge of the room for storing bicycles. It has been the experience of the school that the spirit of co-operation among the students is much developed by these activities.

Besides this organization, there is a weekly school assembly at which problems of civic and national importance are considered. The students participate in these meetings. Furthermore, there are forty-nine student clubs. Membership is voluntary, but the range of interests provided for is so large that it is hoped to reach all in one way or another. Healthy extra-curricula interests which are of the greatest importance are thus encouraged.

Though Principal James M. Glass warns that each school must formulate its own program with due respect to its personality, there is here undoubtedly an idea which can be widely copied. Practical experience as well as theoretical instruction forms an essential part of a comprehensive plan of training in citizenship.

In Syracuse, New York, classes for the preparation of candidates for naturalization are held in the evening schools. This elementary work with foreigners is essential in a well-rounded scheme of teaching citizenship. But the ability to pass naturalization examinations is only a very partial preparation for American citizenship as recent events testify.

Notes from the Historical Field

The Department of History and Social Science of North Dakota Agricultural College has been divided into separate departments with Dr. Earle Dudley Ross at the head of the Department of History, and Dr. Andrew F. Hunsaker in charge of the Social Science Department. Doctor Ross was formerly at the Illinois Wesleyan University, and Doctor Hunsaker at the University of Illinois.

Mr. Donald L. McMurtry, who was last year connected with the history department at Brown University, has been appointed Associate in History in the University of Iowa.

Prof. A. H. Buffinton's name attached to his article in the December, 1919, number of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, was incorrectly spelled. It should be *Buffinton* instead of *Buffington*.

The United States Bureau of Education has issued as Bulletin No. 74, 1919, a study compiled by Miss Edith Guerrier entitled, "The Federal Executive Departments as Sources of Information for Libraries." The plan of the work is to describe the methods of work and of preserving archives in each of the Federal Departments. After such a general description, comments are made upon the character of the archives in the department, the kinds of reports and literature published, and means whereby libraries may be benefited in their work by the department's records and publications.

RESOLUTIONS PASSED AT THE FAR EASTERN DINNER AT CLEVELAND IN CONNECTION WITH THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, DECEMBER 30, 1919.

These form a kind of suggested program for the Far East in our educational system.

1. We suggest that steps be taken to see that in the new textbooks which are to be prepared to embody the proposals of the Committee of History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools, much more space than formerly be given to the Far East. If the authors of these texts should wish it we suggest that arrangements be made to offer the assistance of experts on the Far East in preparing the pages which have to do with this field.

2. We suggest that historians and political scientists attempt as an ideal the inclusion in the history and political science departments of every first-class college at least a semester course on the Far East.

3. We suggest that in general courses on recent history, and where possible, in medieval and modern history, and in courses on diplomatic relations, more attention than previously be paid to the peoples of the east of Asia.

4. We also suggest that at least four or five of our larger universities in which there are extensive graduate courses on the Far East, and where a large proportion of our students and teachers are trained, be encouraged to introduce chairs on Far Eastern history and politics. In one or two instances work might also be offered in the languages. It is your committee's opinion that at the present time work in the Chinese and Japanese languages could not be offered economically by more than three or four institutions, but it ought certainly to be offered in as many as these. Work which would not require a knowledge of the language could and should be offered in every one of our larger universities. The committee is of the opinion that such university chairs on the Far East would be the means of training more specialists than we now possess, and of encouraging the production of more scholarly books and articles on the

field, and at the same time of preparing college teachers who will never specialize in the field to offer scholarly introductory courses in the countries involved.

5. Your committee is of the opinion that traveling fellowships should be established, either by universities or some other foundation, to enable student specialists in the Far East to spend two or three years in the Far East in the study of the language and institutions of one or more of the countries of that region.

6. The committee feels that by the means outlined above, and by various other means, encouragement should be given to the production of sound scholarly work, both for specialists and for the general public on the recent and the more remote history and problems of the Far East.

7. The committee recommends that this dinner conference take steps to continue the work of the committee over another year, adding to or altering its personnel as you may suggest.

Respectfully submitted,

E. G. GREENE,
F. W. WILLIAMS,
P. J. TREAT,
A. C. COOLIDGE,
R. N. McELROY,
K. S. LATOUBETTE,
Committee.

A NEW METHOD.

With the beginning class in sophomore history I often find the pupils at sea in attempting to visualize and appreciate prehistoric man. The great upward trend of the story of humanity is woefully unintelligible if they cannot feel the weakness of man as an animal in life and death struggle with a hostile nature, the cunning and indomitable courage that has made him the master of earth and sky, and his slow blundering development through the dim twilight of antiquity.

The textbook is worse than useless, a lecture on the subject might be good practice for the teacher but deadening on the class, and much outside reading, even if it could be found, is impracticable with a beginning class unskilled both in the use of books and in catching the spirit of what they read. The following procedure is, I think, original, and has never failed to let loose a flood of adolescent enthusiasm and constructive thinking.

The first question on the first day of school is, "Have you ever heard of Robinson Crusoe?" Of course, they have. Instantly the room is alive with interest. Any wide-awake American youngster of high school age can retell his story. They tell of his shipwreck. What did he need? Food, clothes, a place to sleep. How did he know that he needed food? Instinct! Clothes? He must have learned that in England. Then the discussion goes into man's artificial and man's natural wants. Could Robinson Crusoe have lived if he had had no aid from the ship? Most of the class think that he could have.

Then I close the discussion by saying that I heard of a man who was in a worse condition than Robinson Crusoe. The class is all ears in a minute. He was on a ship sleeping when a great storm arose. Hearing the cries outside he ran on deck without stopping to dress, and a wave washed him off into the sea. The waves buffeted him until they washed away his night clothes, and he was thrown upon the shore without anything—not even a pocketknife. But that wasn't the worst. His head hit a rock and his brain was injured in just this way. He was perfectly normal as you or I—but he couldn't remember a thing he had ever known before. He was just like a little baby. The island

was inhabited by animals. The large ones are used to hunting the smaller animals for food, and they will think that he is an animal—which he really is—and they will hunt him. The smaller animals will think he is a large animal and run from him. He wakes. What does he want? How does he go about supplying his wants? Here is where imagination and constructive thinking comes in. Holding the class strictly to man as an animal without any tools save his instinct and his muscle they reconstruct his life for three days. I usually turn them loose with pencil and paper after a little discussion, and the resulting stories are discussed in class the next day.

Then comes the transition. This man which they have created is prehistoric man, running down his food, sleeping in trees for protection, and learning to throw stones with some degree of accuracy. His body is much different from ours because of his mode of living; his feet must be shaped for climbing and his head for tearing meat. From this we trace his slow stumbling along the path of learning, the discovery of fire, the greatest of all inventions—the bow and arrow, until, instead of man being the slave of nature, nature serves man. So by entering into his life prehistoric man becomes a part of them. They grasp the enormous problem of humanity, see as from a mountain side both the future and the long toilsome road of the past, and pass on to the more specialized study of political and social history with a feeling of personal interest.

MAJEL I. KURRIE,

Teacher of European History in New Albany High School, New Albany, Ind.

THE EFFECTS OF THE 1917 COURSE OF STUDY ON THE STATUS OF HISTORY IN THE HIGH SCHOOL OF CHICAGO.

A MEMORANDUM PRESENTED TO THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS BY THE HISTORY SECTION.

In the spring of 1917, the Superintendent of Schools, the late Mr. John D. Shoop, called all high school teachers to meet in sections for the discussion of the proper representation of each subject in the course of study about to be arranged. The History Section appointed a committee to examine into the condition of history and report on needed changes at the coming meeting. The committee made three criticisms of the course.

First. There was no continuity in the history courses. This was due to the fact that history was almost entirely elective, and when it was suggested in a course the word "history" was used, instead of designating some course. Many more pupils were taking ancient history than were taking medieval and modern history, so few pupils came to American history with any proper European background.

Second. The committee deprecated the fact that in the Language and History Section of the general course no history was required (aside from the statement in a footnote that during the course one year of history must be elected). Four years of foreign language were, however, required.

Third. They regretted the fact that industrial history only was offered in the two-year vocational courses.

In order to remedy these conditions, the committee proposed the following arrangements:

1. All pupils taking the Language and History Section of the General Course should be required to take three years of history, beginning with European history in the second year.

2. In all four-year courses modern European history should be required in the third year as a prerequisite for American history in the fourth year.

3. In the two-year vocational courses European history of some sort should be allowed as a substitute for industrial history if the principal so preferred.

These findings of the committee were carefully discussed and unanimously adopted by the History Section. They were sent to the proper authorities, and it was hoped would be incorporated in the new course of study to be issued in the fall of 1917. When that course of study appeared we were greatly disappointed to find that none of our suggestions were followed except the one requiring American history in the fourth year of all four-year courses. Furthermore, geometry was required of all pupils in the second year of the general course. This drove ancient history out of some of the smaller high schools, and reduced the number of classes in the larger schools.

In the spring of 1919 we were again notified that the course of study was to be revised, and asked to send in our recommendations. In order to have statistics at hand to show the effect of the 1917 course of study on history we made a survey of the status of history in the high schools from material furnished us by principals of every high school. This survey amply confirmed our previous diagnosis of the weak points in the curriculum so far as history was concerned.

We learned that there was 34,870 pupils in the Chicago high schools in February, 1919. Of these, 8,155, or 23.5 per cent., were taking history, leaving 26,725, or 76.5 per cent., who were taking no history at all. The 23.5 per cent. was divided among the various courses as follows:

American history	3,503, or 10.0 per cent.
Ancient history	2,351, or 6.7 per cent.
Industrial history	1,348, or 3.8 per cent.
Medieval and modern	598, or 2.7 per cent.
English and modern	355, or 1.0 per cent.

Total 8,155, or 23.5 per cent.

From the above table it will readily be seen that our contention that modern European history is neglected is correct. Only 4.8 per cent. of the pupils of the Chicago high schools are taking any history which touches on modern events in Europe, namely, medieval and modern history, 3.8 per cent., and English history, 1 per cent. This means that a little more than half the pupils who take American history have no European background, and that historical continuity is neglected. If we admit also that part of the pupils who take these European history courses drop out before reaching the fourth year, the number of those well prepared for American history may be smaller still.

The lack of continuity in the history courses is still further emphasized by the discovery that many of the twenty-two high schools of Chicago do not offer some of these courses at all.

63 per cent., or 14 high schools, offer no English history.

50 per cent., or 11 high schools, offer no industrial history.

13 per cent., or 4 high schools, offer no medieval and modern history.

13 per cent., or 4 high schools, offer no ancient history.

If we divide the high school pupils into those taking four year and those taking two year courses we come upon other interesting facts. There are 24,805 pupils in four year courses; 7,557, or 30 per cent. of these, take history, a record somewhat better than that of the schools as a whole. There are 10,067 pupils in the two year courses. Of these, 598, or 5 per cent., take history, and this means industrial history only, as that is the one course offered to two year pupils. When we further note that eleven of the twenty-

two Chicago high schools offer no industrial history, we feel that our desire to do something to enrich the cultural content of the vocational courses is amply justified.

The above study of the condition of history under the 1917 course of study leads us to present once more the recommendations we presented two years ago, namely:

1. Three consecutive years of history required for those taking the language and history section of the general course.

2. One year of European history, chiefly modern, required in the third year of all four year courses as a prerequisite for American history.

3. European history permitted in place of industrial history in the two year courses.

In conclusion, we would like to call attention to the fact that these recommendations are in line with the great movement for increasing the study of modern history undertaken this year by the N. E. A. and the American Historical Society jointly. They are attempting to introduce a minimum of one year of European history, chiefly modern, into all the high schools of the country. This study is also earnestly urged by the United States Bureau of Education as absolutely necessary for good citizenship in the trying period just opening. The Bureau has already sent out circulars stating its opinion that American history is being taught in our high schools, too often, without the European background which alone can give our history its full value for the citizens of to-day and to-morrow. They must know European thought and European history in order justly to estimate the United States policies in relation to foreign affairs.

So far as Chicago is concerned, the government is evidently right about the lack of attention to modern history. We, therefore, as a section, respectfully urge that the above changes be incorporated in the next course of study as one of Chicago's contributions to the difficult matter of adjustment to the new era.

LILLIAN W. THOMPSON,
Chairman Committee on Curriculum.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

MEDIEVAL AND MODERN WARFARE. A lecture delivered at the John Rylands Library on the 12th December, 1917, by T. F. Tout, M.A.F.B.A. Reprinted from "The Bulletin of the John Rylands Library," Vol. V, Nos. 3-4. The University Press, Manchester, and Longmans, Green & Company, New York, 1919. Pp. 30.

Though delivered in the midst of the war, this comparison of the military practices of the Middle Ages with those of to-day shows fairness and openmindedness. It is not a profound study, but seeks to indicate some of the more obvious points of resemblance and difference in the medieval and the modern attitude toward war. Though, in the former period, war was chaotic, it was chiefly the business of a single class who in the code of chivalry developed certain rules of the game that tended toward fair play and courtesy. The late war saw all such rules swept aside. "The refusal of our enemies," says Professor Tout, "to regard as binding on themselves rules, which they professed to regard as binding on others, has destroyed, perhaps forever, the time-honored conventions that made war tolerable to the moral consciousness because they mitigated some of its horrors.

It follows that modern warfare has become infinitely more cruel and inhuman than the warfare of the Middle Ages. Deeds of cunning and violence, once mainly done in hot blood, are now done deliberately and consciously." Only in the air-fighting has return to the conditions of single combat restored in measure the spirit of chivalry. On the other hand, modern conditions have brought back many practices familiar to early days, such as universal liability to service as in the Anglo-Saxon *fyrd*, instead of professional fighting; hand-to-hand fighting with knives and clubs; liquid fire and gas, similar to the Greek fire and the "stink pots" of early days; the absence of distinction between combatant and non-combatant; and the devastation of a country in order to force a favorable decision. The general conclusion is that warfare under modern conditions is growing worse instead of better, and that the world must find a means to put an end to it.

ARTHUR C. HOWLAND.

University of Pennsylvania.

HAGEDORN, HERMAN. *The Boys' Life of Theodore Roosevelt.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1918. Pp. 375. \$1.25.

In an especially happy fashion Mr. Hagedorn has pictured in this biography the good cheer, courage, sense of humor, straightforwardness, honesty and determination which appear so prominently in the character and personality of Theodore Roosevelt. He has accomplished this result by the generous use of anecdote and incident linked together in such manner as to form a connected and stirring narrative. Beginning with his description of Theodore's first spanking, his delicate childhood, his love of reading, his diary, his collection of bugs, birds and snakes to his vivid account of the Rough Riders, the digging of the Panama Canal, the African and Brazilian expeditions, and the attempted assassination in Milwaukee, there is scarcely a dull page to be found in the book. Unlike many brief biographies, this volume lacks almost entirely the encyclopedic quality all too common in such works. While the story is told in simple, direct words, it is in no sense "written down." All in all, it is a volume which red-blooded boys, and girls, too, for that matter, will devour with enthusiasm. For rapid, atmospheric reading, it is well suited for high school use.

HOWARD C. HILL.

University of Chicago High School.

FAIRBRIDGE, DOROTHEA. *A History of South Africa.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1918. Pp. 319. 3 s. 6 d.

The passage in September, 1909, by the British Parliament of the South Africa Act which joined the Transvaal, Orange Free State, Cape Colony and Natal in the Union of South Africa, closed a long chapter of colonizing activity, colonial rivalry and state building. It was forty years after Sir Francis Drake, in 1580, sighted the Cape of Good Hope that two English mariners of the East India Company hoisted the British flag there, and claimed South Africa for King James, while "the captain and merchants of the Dutch ship 'Schiedam,' then in the Bay, stood by as witnesses and joined in the cheers that went up." For a time thereafter the Cape was used as a half-way stopping place for the English ships on their way to and from India, but in 1651 the island of St. Helena came to be preferred by English mariners for their half-way house, and British ships ceased to touch at South Africa. Then it was that the Dutch East India Company raised its flag there, and

gained a possession which remained uncontested by the British till 1795, when they seized Cape Colony, which, however, they returned at the Peace of Amiens in 1803. Again in 1806 they occupied it and retained it, paying in 1814 six million pounds to the Dutch as compensation.

This story of settlement, expansion, conflict with native tribes, development of rich natural resources, and wars for possession and control is now an important part of world history and deserving of the attention of reader and student. By these this manual will be found to be highly serviceable, for the narrative is vivid, accurate and well proportioned. Excellent illustrations and maps embellish it.

KOCH, THEODORE WESLEY. *Books in the War. The Romance of Library War Service.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xix, 388. \$3.00.

A book for bookish people, revealing what reading did during the war for both the morale and the advancement of American and British soldiers, it has interest for the general reader also. Here the enquirer can find what books the soldier and the sailor liked, what agencies furnished these to him and by what means the difficulties of distribution were overcome. The educational opportunities are described, as well as the facilities for entertaining by means of books in military camp, trench and hospital, and among the many prisoners. There is much of distinct human interest in the glimpses the reader is permitted to take through the eyes of the earnest workers in this library service into the life of sailor, marine and soldier.

TREVELYAN, G. M. *Scenes from Italy's War.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xv, 240. \$3.50.

It was to have been expected that he who had shown his power as a historian, and his mastery of literary style in his three *Garibaldi* books, his "England in the Age of Wycliffe" and his "England Under the Stuarts," would produce a notable book dealing with this war if he undertook the task. He has long been a lover of Italy and close student of her history, and his experience gained in three years' service with the Italian army, when he had charge of the British Red Cross detachment, furnished him with peculiarly rich opportunities for extended observation. The book is first of all an absorbing personal narrative most modestly told by an active participant. It is also an accurate account of the military campaigns from the first battle of 1915 to the victorious end. Political conditions, too, are depicted with great clearness, the first chapter being a masterly pen picture of the difficulties Italy's patriot party had to overcome before it could swing the nation into the war. A dozen detailed maps illuminate the text's descriptions of army movements.

BREASTED, JAMES HENRY. *Survey of the Ancient World.* Chicago: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. viii, 417. \$1.40.

Professor Breasted's works need no introduction. His "Ancient Times" marks an epoch in the art of historical text writing. This book is widely and deservedly popular.

Recently the same author has written a "Survey of the Ancient World." This book is a condensation of his "Ancient Times," and is designed primarily for technical and vocational schools, and for those institutions which can give only a relatively small amount of time to the study of ancient civilization.

It is a well proportioned work. The chapter on "Early Man" serves as an admirable introduction. Few students peruse this chapter without having the imagination fired to continue the fascinating story of man. It is not so very

long ago that little emphasis was placed on the Oriental world. As a recognized authority on the Orient, Professor Breasted naturally devotes considerable space to this period. But it does not bulk too large, eighty-nine pages being devoted to this period, the remainder being almost equally divided between Greek and Roman history. As one continues to read, the brilliant and scholarly character of the book is fully revealed. The treatment of the Periclean Age, of the last century of the Roman Republic, and the triumph of the barbarians is unique. The Periclean Age reveals its modern spirit; the steps toward Empire during the last century of the Republic, and the glimpse of modern Europe as Rome gradually gives way to internal decay and external pressure from barbarians are vividly portrayed.

There are nearly 200 fine illustrations—some of which are full pages in sepia. The reader is not left in the dark as to the meaning of these illustrations, an unusual feature of the book being simple yet ample explanations of each picture. Numerous and skilfully chosen maps, questions at the end of each chapter, a good working bibliography, and frequent cross references to "Ancient Times" greatly aid in making this a teachable book.

ALBERT FARNSWORTH.

Classical High School, Worcester, Mass.

LASKI, HAROLD J. *Authority in the Modern State.* New Haven: Yale University Press, 1919. Pp. x, 398. \$3.00.

This volume is in part a statement of some of Mr. Laski's own views of the modern state, and in part a critical analysis of the theories of a few selected French political philosophers, Bonald, Bourget, Lamennais, and Royer-Collard. The real interest of the book centers in two chapters, the first, in which the author sets forth his interpretation of the state, and the last, in which he discusses the syndicalist movement in the French civil service.

Mr. Laski's aim is to make clear the proper nature of the state, and the correct attitude of the individual toward it. The state itself he describes as a territorial society in which there is a distinction between government and subjects, while government is the organ by means of which the will of the state is made effective. Obedience to the government, he decides, is due partly to imitation, partly perhaps to fear, but chiefly to voluntary consent. The aim of the state is theoretically the general welfare, or, as he terms it, "the good life;" actually this aim is perverted into the advancement of the interest of those persons who happen to control the government at any given time.

He insists that the state must be judged, not by any preconceived notions of its sanctity, but solely by the acts of its agents, and by applying this standard, he finds certain reasons for widespread dissatisfaction with the state in its present form. The very idea of a sovereign state, he urges, is inconsistent with democracy. Moreover, the state has not lived up to its own ideals; on the contrary, instead of securing the general welfare, it has studiously avoided the solution of problems, so that its policy has degenerated into a pitiful attempt merely to maintain the *status quo*. Institutions have not kept pace with the demands of rapidly changing conditions, so that they are now wholly inadequate. Not only have legislatures been unable to achieve the purpose of the state, but the whole system of parliamentary government itself has clearly demonstrated its own failure.

In order to emphasize the inadequacy of the present system, he discusses briefly the bearing of the labor question on the problem of the state. The period in which we are

living is, he assures us, one of "vital transition," and one of the signs of a new time is the rise of a "class-conscious" labor group. Workers, he writes, refuse to admit that the state "in any permanently valid sense" is "the sovereign representative of the community." Labor could not "admit the complete sovereignty of the state" unless the state were on its side. But the state is "predominantly capitalist in character," and its power is certain to be exerted against the interest of labor.

Mr. Laski's own theory of the state is revolutionary. According to him, the real problem before humanity to-day is the restoration of man to his rightful place at the center of social life. Because the state fails to achieve that aim, he concludes that "the sovereignty of the state . . . no longer commands anything more than a partial and spasmodic acceptance." The state cannot be supreme, because man's allegiance to it must be "secondary to what he may conceive his duty to society as a whole." The state is really only one of a number of associations, and it is, or should be, on the same level with the others. It "is not necessarily any more in harmony with the end of society than a church or a trade-union, or a freemasons' lodge." In fact, the state can be superior to these various groups only in "the sphere that it has marked out for its own, and then only to the extent to which that sphere is not successfully challenged." The state can secure the loyalty of the individual only "insofar as he does not think that, in the given situation, the railway union has in fact a superior claim."

Naturally the various groups "may well conflict with the state," and when they do the test of the allegiance the state should win "is the degree in which it is thought to be more in harmony than its antagonists with the end of social life." Granted this inevitable conflict of loyalties, who decides which is entitled to support? Not the majority, for Mr. Laski does not trust majority rule, but the individual himself. Throughout the book he lays great emphasis upon the vital need of individual judgment and action. He justifies this complete freedom of personal will on the assumption "that every individual is above all a moral being," and that his greatest contribution to the state is "the exercise of his judgment upon public questions." To the uninitiated all this looks like nothing but a dismal prospect of confusion and anarchy, and even the author admits that "violence . . . may well come to be regarded as a normal weapon of political controversy."

Mr. Laski is not quite so prolific of constructive suggestions as he is of criticism of the present system. In order that social purposes may be achieved, he would have the state so organized that full opportunity is afforded for the realization of both personal and corporate initiative. The real problem, as he sees it, is the proper relation of the other group associations to the state, and he would solve it on the basis of federalization and decentralization. By federalism he means not the association of territorial units, but some sort of syndicalist combination of various organizations and interests, in a word, the soviet arrangement, although he does not call it that. The state itself should be neutralized, so that for example it would be powerless to intervene in any strike. The settlement of all industrial questions he would leave to those engaged in them, not to outside authority. This reorganization of society, he concludes, can be brought about only by means of compulsion.

Mr. Laski writes with fairness, without venom, without attributing improper motives to non-radicals, and without cynicism. But those who believe that progress is possible with constitutional methods will take exception to most of his doctrines. And in addition to rejecting his basic philosophy, many critics will point to serious shortcomings in

his manner of dealing with the subject. First of all, he accepts as sufficiently axiomatic to serve as a premise for certain conclusions a definition of the state that is not only wholly inadequate, but positively funny. Throughout the book he insists upon a consideration of the state, not as a philosophic abstraction, but in terms of the human beings who serve as its agents. In this light, it is, for Americans at least, hardly necessary to comment upon a concept of the state in which the late Mr. Roosevelt would appear as the subject of President Wilson.

Moreover, Mr. Laski shows a tendency to dogmatize in dealing with the most debatable questions. It is far from certain, for example, that man is above all a moral being, and that no restraint is necessary. The experience of the city of Boston during the first night of its police strike would suggest at least exceptions, if not flat contradictions, to that general principle. Nor is there anything like an agreement upon his theory that the whole system of parliamentary government has failed. There are so many weak spots of this kind in his fundamental principles that his superstructure of reasoning is to say the least shaky, if not flimsy.

Again, he refuses to judge the present system and his proposed new synthesis by the same standards, and hence he lays himself open to attack. In theory the state as we know it is good, but he insists upon disregarding the theory, and on considering it solely in the light of the results achieved by its agents. Then he submits his plan of federalization, which is nothing but theory, and urges that it replace the other, because, as theory, it looks good. It is hardly fair to reject all tests but the pragmatic for one system, and then to offer the community a new one which is beyond the reach of pragmatic judgment. Granted that the existing state operates badly, what guarantee can he offer that the new one, which must be manipulated by fallible and incompetent human beings, will work better?

It is exactly at this point that the weakness of his and other socialistic systems is most clearly revealed. If these plans have genuine intrinsic merit, they will eventually be adopted without a violent revolution; if they are devoid of value, no amount of violence can fasten them permanently upon society. In admitting that his proposed changes cannot be achieved except by compulsion, Mr. Laski supplies the best reason for opposing them.

Simmons College.

RALPH VOLNEY HARLOW.

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- Roman Law and the New Monarchy in France. Sir Geoffrey Butler (*English Historical Review*, January).
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 Scottish Middle Templars, 1604-1869. C. E. A. Bedwell (*Scottish Historical Review*, January). List of Templars appended.
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- The Khaki Journalists, 1917-1919. Arthur M. Schlesinger (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, December).
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- The Lost Manuscript of Father Kino. Margaret H. Harrison (*Catholic World*, February).
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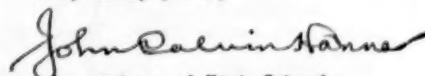
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